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DOCTRINES AND PRACTICE

OF

HIPPOCRATES

IN

SURGERY and PHYSIC.

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W. H. Oliver 1783

DOCTRINES AND PRACTICE

O F

HIPPOCRATES

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I N

SURGERY and PHYSIC;

WITH

OCCASIONAL REMARKS,

By FRANCIS RIOLLAY, M.B.

Magnum quidem virum, majorem tamen quia in laudem
vetustorum invidia non obstat. SENEC.

L O N D O N:

Printed for T. CADELL, in the 'STRAND;

M.DCC.LXXXIII.

DOCTRINES AND PRACTICE

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IN

SURGERY AND PHYSIC;

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OCCASIONAL REMARKS



By FRANCIS J. LEAVY, M.B.

Magnam quidem rem, magnam tamen deus in laudem
veterum invideat non obli.

LONDON:

Printed for T. Cadell, in the Strand.

M.DCC.LXXXIII.

TO
THE RIGHT HONOURABLE
LORD HAWKE,
BARON OF TOWTON.

MY LORD,

TO the Public, it appears a thing of course, that an Author should place an illustrious name at the head of his works: but your friends, who are acquainted with the uncommon extent of your literary accomplishments, will know the propriety of this dedication; and mine, who are
no

no strangers to the essential obligations I am under to your Lordship, will look upon it as the intention of an acknowledgement. I hope you will receive it, whatever may be the fate of these fruits of some labour, as a mark of my respectful attachment and gratitude.

I am

YOUR LORDSHIP'S

most obliged,

and most humble Servant,

Hart-street, Bloomsbury,

May 1st, 1783.

F. RIOLLAY.

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P A R T

PART

the early manner with which some mention him, and others quote a few of his opinions, it might be thought that his writings are universally known; but it is with some books as with some virtues, many people think they know something of them. Several writers, no doubt, have given convincing proofs of an intimate acquaintance with his works, and a few have communicated in a living

PART II. CHAPTER I.

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AFTE R a lapse of time so considerable as twenty-two centuries, many of which, the three last especially, have in literary productions, left us such interesting marks of their passage, shall I not appear, by chusing *Hippocrates* for my text, to walk in a beaten path unlikely to lead towards any thing new? His name, I confess, is more generally familiar to our ear than that of any other writer; and medical authors, whenever they conveniently can, are glad to give his sanction to their own observations; so that from

several B the

the easy manner with which some mention him, and others quote a few of his opinions, it might be thought that his writings are universally known; but it is with some books as with some virtues, many people think they do enough by praising them. Several writers, no doubt, have given convincing proofs of an intimate acquaintance with the father of physic, and a few have communicated in a living language his sentiments on many heads; * but as none, except Mr. Le Clerc in his History of Physic, have taken a general survey of all his works, the subject cannot be said to be exhausted; and if some motives have rendered it customary to consider chiefly one of its sides, it will not perhaps seem improbable, that by changing the usual place of observation, some objects not so much noticed may present them-

* Dr. Glass: Commentaries on Fevers.—Dr. Barker: Comparison of the Ancient and Modern Practice.

selves to our view. 'Tis not my wish to insinuate that all authors on medicine have more or less expressed for this their common parent, sentiments of veneration and tenderness, more becoming dutiful children than men of unbiassed judgment; I am not such a stranger to the history of my own family as not to have, at least, heard of the disrespectful language in which some ungrateful brethren have spoken of our great ancestor; but being as little inclined to commend partiality, though ever so natural, as to excuse ingratitude, though perhaps shaded by some appearance of justice, I have presumed to think that a candid representation of the most essential parts of our founder's doctrines and practice, with the remarks of a man who professes to pay no regard whatever to any thing but truth, or what appears to him to be truth, might not prove unacceptable to those young gentlemen who are intended for the study of physic. At that age the

mind is eager to enlighten itself, but dubious about the means. The number and size of books composing a medical library, make the student pensive and irresolute; surveying them with an anxious look, he says to himself; *Life is short, the art is long*, and remains undetermined. Should the *librarian* recollect that once he felt himself that painful irresolution, and turned about in that same room till he became giddy, he might perhaps step towards our young man, and kindly say to him: "That air of concern, Sir, with which you look at these lofty piles, is an evident proof of the goodness of your sense; nobody could without disgust think of dedicating his life to the perusal of such a collection; that Herculean labour would in time destroy the meanest understanding, much sooner spoil the best; a thread is necessary to penetrate this labyrinth with advantage, that thread is nothing else but the knowledge of the manner in which it

has

has been constructed. On the highest of those shelves, at your right, are different manuscript copies of the writings, generally, though not unanimously, ascribed to Hippocrates. This author is called the first of physicians, and the father of physic: not that it is supposed the art was not cultivated before him, for he says himself, *the whole science of medicine has long been known*: but because at the revival of letters, physicians, finding it a difficult matter to disentangle facts from fabulous accounts, agreed to bestow that title upon the supposed author of the most ancient work saved out of the wreck of Grecian literature. The three next shelves are loaded with the labours of grammarians, glossators, interpreters, and commentators, achieved with the view of explaining and illustrating the original. Among them I don't include the most considerable, on account of the extensive space he alone fills up; you must suppose I mean Galen,

whose volumes, with those they have occasioned, occupy the rest of that side. To him, after Celsus, we are chiefly indebted for informing us of the different sects that established themselves, during a period of six centuries, in opposition to, or in support of, the principles of Hippocrates. Their respective arguments he has related at large, and transmitted us many fragments which are no where else to be found. By his endeavours to raise his fame as an anatomist above all his predecessors, he has taught us the very great progress made in that science by some of the ancients, Erasistratus and Herophilus in particular, whom he should rather have contented himself to admire, than ventured to criticise. However, the anatomical knowledge contained in his writings is so considerable, that a late eminent professor * used to say, nobody ought to assume

* Dr. Monro, of Edinburgh:—MSS. Histor. of Anatom. in the Museum.

INTRODUCTION.

the honour of a discovery, till he was sure Galen had not mentioned it. For many ages his reputation in this respect maintained itself unrivalled and undisputed. The chairs of anatomy were filled by proxies only, whose office consisted in representing him, and delivering his instructions; when Vesalius, regardless of the numbers that supported his throne, made it at once totter, by asserting, that his descriptions were chiefly taken from brutes: an accusation, which the laws, customs, and opinions of the Romans, respecting dead bodies, rendered alone extremely probable; but the truth of which has been, from the descriptions themselves, satisfactorily ascertained.

“ Before you stands *Celsus*, or the *Latin Hippocrates*, a man whose real profession has been called in question, on account of his having delivered precepts in agriculture and oratory, as well as in medicine;

but who, did not some of his expressions † shew plainly that he practised physic, must, without hesitation, be looked upon as a physician, since no-body else could reasonably pretend to condemn Hippocrates for his doctrine of critical days, or to admire him for the truth of his prognostics. The title of *Latin Hippocrates* is not more properly given him, on account of his being one of the first practitioners of Italy, than because he generally adhered to the principles of his Grecian master.

“ Under him is *Aretæus*, of *Cappadocia*, concerning whom the silence of cotemporary and subsequent writers, together with a similarity between some parts of his works, and many passages quoted from *Archigenes*, by *Galen* and *Ætius*, have raised a suspicion of plagiarism. ‡ It matters not

† See the judicious Preface of Dr. Grieve, to his Translation of Celsus, p. xii.

‡ See Huxham's Preface to his Treatise on Fevers, p. ix.

much

much whether Aretæus, Archigenès, or any other, compiled the collection to which his name is prefixed; but it may answer a good purpose to observe, that, except some mention of the use of blisters, the whole is a servile imitation of Hippocrates.

“Next appears *Cælius Aurelianus*, whose degree of merit may be fairly conjectured, from the chief subject of his writings being an illustration of the doctrine and practice of the methodists; a sect of physicians, who finding the attainment of medical qualifications too long and too difficult by studying, like Hippocrates and his adherents, the character of every disease, contrived a most convenient method of abridging the way, by considering all disorders as arising from too much, or too little, tension in the solids; or from a third cause, still more ingenious, viz. a combination of the two first. It is not, perhaps, surprizing that so seductive a doctrine

doctrine was once imagined, but that, after having long subsided into deserved neglect, it should ever be countenanced by a man of learning and ingenuity*, and publickly re-adopted and taught in a very celebrated school†, was not natural to expect.

“A little below, you see what remains of the voluminous collections and compilations of *Oribasius*, which, though not inconsiderable in point of bulk, is a mere trifle compared with what he had heaped up in compliance with the desire of the great emperor *Julian*. There are also the works of *Ætius*, made up likewise of compilations, but with greater details concerning Surgery: Of *Alexander Trallianus*, who confined himself to physic; but added

* Dr. Battie. Aphor. de cognoscend. et cur. morb.

† Dr. Brown, of Edinburgh.—It is true, the light in which this gentleman's opinions are held in that university, does not reflect much honour upon them.

to the ordinary means of relief, methods invented by ignorance and superstition * : Of *Paulus Aegineta*, whose plan has been to imitate an imitator, and copy a copyist ; I mean Galen and Oribasius ; With a few more, as *Nanus*, *Actuarius*, &c. &c. of much less celebrity, but the only ones, however, in Europe, that in a revolution of near a thousand years, like some sickly flowers on a wide barren heath, catch the traveller's eye, and owe his notice only to the gloomy aspect of the whole scene.

“ This long lethargy of the mind having equally blasted all the arts, we might reasonably question the existence of those ages, were not the footsteps of time too visibly marked by the follies and extravagancies of men, during this oblivion of their rational faculties. The voice of Monks only was heard in that awful long night, and the Princes of Europe transport-

* Le Clerc *Histoire de la Medec.*

ing themselves, at the command of that voice, with their subjects and riches, to the banks of the *Jordan*; an acquaintance with the Arabic language, excited a desire of acquiring some knowledge of Eastern arts and sciences, in such as were not solely bent upon rescuing the holy land from the hands of its natural masters. By degrees, the writings of the Arabs were, from this intercourse*, transcribed and brought to Europe, where their medical works being greatly admired, began to be explained, commented, and afterwards universally read and taught for about three centuries. Those two large cases, at your left, contain the authors of that nation; some of which, about fifteen may be, have been translated into latin, and printed; the rest, to a great number you see, remaining, for a reason I will mention in a moment, in their original dress, without any great probability of changing it so soon.

* Le Clerc, *Histor. Critic. Biblic.*

“ By

“ By the reception which these writers met with, you may easily suppose that a great alteration had taken place in the minds of men; if they were not enlightened, they were desirous to be so; their eagerness in learning a language so different from their own; the admiration they expressed for books, which they thought the best existing; the labour they bestowed upon those books, or in similar compositions, are so many signs of that disposition to activity, not less natural, perhaps, to successive generations after a long rest, than to every individual. These promising appearances, which were entirely owing to the epidemic delirium that had invaded all the States of Europe, were soon fortunately realised by the assistance of other barbarians. Constantinople was at that time the great repository of books, and the asylum of men of learning: but, for that very reason, as little connected with our western countries, as a man of letters

letters is in our days with a rough plebeian; so that, whatever advantages that city possessed over the rest of the world, would, in all probability, have long remained confined to its inhabitants, had not the greatest part of them been forced to fly from a place, which the Turks made themselves masters of in the middle of the 15th century. That event, for ever memorable, for ever interesting to the human species, was, in its happy consequences, rendered universally beneficial, by the invention of the art of printing; which, through a catastrophe similar to that of Constantinople*, soon after spread itself all over Europe. From the united labours of these illustrious exiles, Greek literature reassumed its former rank, and acquired a degree of splendor, and an extent of celebrity, far superior to those of its most flourishing times. Physicians began then

* The capture of Mentz in 1462. Constantinople was taken in 1453.

to perceive, what they had never suspected before, viz. that the Arabs, when Alexandria submitted to their arms, had carefully appropriated to themselves the remains of its once famous library, and derived from that source, the greatest share of their knowledge. This discovery gaining ground every day, the pupils were, after the vain endeavours of a few remaining adherents for maintaining their reputation, neglected for their old masters; † whose writings, now become the object of universal attention, were, with so much labour and zeal, examined, corrected, translated, illustrated, imitated, and published, so many times, and in so many different forms, that having not here sufficient room for all those productions, we have content-

† Whoever is desirous of knowing the particulars of this revolution, may consult the works of *Fuchsius*, *Fernelius*, *Fabius Calvus*, *Mercurialis*, *Duretus*, *Hollerius*, *Ballonius*, *Jacotius*, &c. every one of whom contributed to its success.

ed ourselves with giving to a chosen number, the remaining part of this side.
 "A revolution so unfavourable to the reputation of the Arabs, sufficiently accounts for so many of their volumes being left without translations, and is, no doubt, the reason of their great Avicenna's appearing still among us, in a stile little calculated to give an idea of the elegance and purity with which, according to some learned men in that language, that prince of Arabian physicians composed his medical works. I will not pretend to be greatly concerned at this negligence, as it is not my opinion that medicine suffers from it any real detriment; but truth and justice require, notwithstanding several weighty charges are brought against them by a judicious writer, * that I should mention our essential obligations to these authors, for having enriched our Materia Medica with several remedies, the value and neces-

* Baglivi, lib. 1. p. 29.

city of which we daily experience. The mild purgatives unknown to the Greeks; * or, at least, overlooked by them, thought so freely produced by their soil, were introduced into practice by the Arabs; and, with reason, preferred in most cases to the drastics, the violent effects of which, must be the reason of that unphilosophical choice of seasons, insisted upon by Hippocrates, for their administration; and of the caution he recommended in prescribing their use, even when he judged them to be necessary. To them also we are indebted for pointing out many aromatic substances, the virtues of which, was their use confined to medicinal purposes, would restore to languid constitutions the common tone of health, and recall in old age some of the sensations of youth. But the profusion of these drugs on our tables prevents the effect of their

* Le Clerc.

salubrious qualities, and makes them bring on the disease they were intended to remove. Two such classes of remedies would alone entitle the Arabs to our regard and gratitude; but they seem to claim besides the merit of having occasioned the greatest revolution that ever pharmacy did, or very likely will experience: I mean the application of chymistry to physic, which, being not so much as hinted at by Galen, Orisbafius, nor the first Arabian physicians, may, according to the opinion of a good judge, † be said to take its source from the age of Avicenna.

“ The method of treating some distempers, particularly the small-pox, and measles, unknown to us before our intercourse with them, I am at a loss how to call; whether an obligation, or a misfortune; since the same channel brought the disease as well as the remedy, ‡ and the

† Le Clerc.

‡ Mead de variol. et morbill.

latter proved so inadequate to the ravages of the former. We might, no doubt, have remained longer free from that species of plague, as some nations have to this day, by living, like them, strangers to this world; but since we do not envy their security, we must, at least, acknowledge that the method of treatment, successfully followed at present in the natural small-pox, is, with very few deviations, precisely what the Arabs transmitted to us.* Had we never lost sight of their doctrine, Sydenham would not have been exposed to the resentment of contemporary practitioners, for discovering the cause of their want of success, he would not have wounded their pride, by proving himself their master: the writings of Mead and Freind on this subject, good as they are, might have been unnecessary;† but especially

* Mead's edition of Rhazes.

† Their correspondence, on the advantages of purging at the end of the disorder, is the part chiefly alluded

cially many, great many lives, might have run to the end of their natural course.

“This part of the room behind you is the only one, I believe, which remains to be mentioned. On this hand, is a collection of the several writers, who by slow, because difficult, steps, have brought the knowledge of anatomy to a degree of accuracy, that reflects honour on mankind. If I should attempt to express my admiration of their patience and ingenuity, or my opinion of the importance of that knowledge, whatever might happen to be the warmth of my words, it could not exceed the sense I entertain of the usefulness of the science, or of the merits of its promoters. Guided by this light, the surgeon is not afraid of penetrating as to in this place. Rhazes, it is true, was cautious in this respect; thinking that the nature of the disease, in most cases, sufficiently inclines that way: but the cold diet and regimen he prescribed, no doubt, often superseded the necessity of repeated purgations.

deep

deep as the seat of the disease may require: like a well-piloted ship, his instrument glides over, or between, the most essential wheels of the machine, without injuring their delicate substance, and restores soundness and vigour, though seemingly threatening destruction. To prove its equal necessity in physic, would be paying a bad compliment to your understanding. Some practitioners, indeed, even among the moderns, have been whimsical enough to assert the contrary, but we must not be so uncivil as to suppose they were in earnest; perhaps they had a mind to try how far men of reputation may appear to want common sense, without lessening themselves in the public opinion. The days of empiricism are now pretty well over, I hope: it was an unpromising, I could say, a melancholy doctrine, which, at the death of every old practitioner, made the art relapse into a new state of infancy, for want of connection between the observations of one man,

and the inexperience of another. That connection is theory: the theory of diseases, is a comparison of the several functions in illness and in health; the theory of the several functions in health, is an impertinent romance without anatomy. From this succinct manner of viewing this fundamental part of our art, you may think yourself obliged to sacrifice a good part of your time to the study of these authors: but, if I interpret your looks rightly, it has already occurred to you, that whatever is contained in these books, is also contained in a *subject*: and that dissection, under a good master, is a better and more expeditious method of information, than a perusal of all the systems that ever were written. The names of those whose researches and labours have been rewarded by discoveries, will naturally become familiar to you in the progress of your acquisitions; and when you are sufficiently grounded to compare, with advantage,

vantage, copies to the original, the study of one system, such, for example, as that of *Winslow*, the completest I am acquainted with, will supersede the necessity of reading a multitude of other books on that subject.

“Further on, you see a moderate number of chymical authors; it is moderate in itself, but much more so comparatively: for this science is, like the subjects which it comprehends, infinite; and many are its votaries. A physician ought to understand chymistry, but he should not be a chymist. The limits of human life, if not of the human mind, preclude us from any rational hope of improving our knowledge and judgment in medicine, as much as we are capable, if we bestow, at the same time, the attention necessary to carry to any degree of perfection, a science composed of numberless facts, and numberless experiments.

“The remainder of this side is, the production of modern writers; by which denomination

nomination, I understand those authors, who, since the literary revolution of the 15th century, have distinguished themselves, either by giving some methodic arrangement to the diffuse doctrines and vague observations of the ancients, or by establishing, on the mass of known facts, a system of their own; that is, a new manner of accounting for the same appearances. To these we must add, a class of writers, of views, less extensive, I grant, but, perhaps, more useful, more calculated for the real advancement of the Art; I mean those who have confined themselves to the rational task of describing accurately, what diseases particular circumstances have enabled them oftener to see, and of faithfully relating the order of the symptoms, the mode of treatment, and the event; with such remarks, as their general knowledge of nature has suggested towards investigating causes, ascertaining the character of the disease, or improving the method of cure.

“ But

“ But without proceeding in the account of these productions, many of which deserve your utmost attention, let us stop at the line of separation between the ancients and the moderns, and cast a look back upon the former. With the least recollection of what has been advanced, viz. 1st, our imitations of the Arabs, previous to the revival of Greek literature: 2dly, The Arabs’ blind adoption of the Greek doctrines: and, 3dly, The religious-like observance of the principles of Hippocrates, by the most considerable of the Greek and Latin authors; we shall easily perceive that, excepting the few sects, which under the names of Empiric, Methodic, &c. deviated from the general course, without any benefit to the Art, or even honour to reason, the writings of Hippocrates are the fertile source from which all ancient medical compositions have, more or less, directly sprung: So that we might say with the famous Chancellor;

cellor; * "He that surveys with diligence
 "all the variety of books, shall every
 "where find infinite repetitions of the
 "same matter; for manner of delivery,
 "divers; but for invention, stale and pre-
 "occupate. Thus what, at first view,
 "seemed numerous, after examination
 "taken, is found much abated."

* Preface to the translation of Bacon's Essay on the
 Advancement of Science.

CHAP.

C H A P. II.

Of the Writings of HIPPOCRATES.

IF the *Librarian's* last assertion is not entirely groundless; if it is admitted that in the medical scale the greatest step is the first *, it will naturally follow, that whoever is desirous of initiating himself in ancient medical learning, cannot chuse a shorter method, than by drinking at the fountain; and that a description of it may both assist the traveller, and soften the chagrin of those whom it does not suit to make the journey. As the crime of multiplying beings without necessity is, on account of its frequency, become of the

* The reader will recollect, that it is not meant to apply this genealogy, farther than to the productions which appeared before the 15th century.

blackest hue in literary productions, the author was anxious of preventing, by the reason he has given, so serious an imputation; or, if he must be criminal, of palliating, at least, the nature of his offence,

The writings of Hippocrates, as they now stand collected in the most approved editions, consist of sixty-six chapters, or books. Sixteen of these † are not mentioned by Galen: who, considering the time he lived in, and his partiality for that author, was not likely to have omitted them, had they then existed. Erotianus, who lived before Galen, admitted a still less number as genuine; and among those, many were, even in his time, suspected of being spurious. Some were given to

† This and so many other articles of information, in this chapter, are borrowed from Mr. Le Clerc, that the expression of *vix ea nostra voco* is hardly a sufficient acknowledgment. The propriety of inserting those articles here, will, it is hoped, apologise to the reader, for my availing myself of a mode of assistance, in general so contrary to my ideas of useful composition.

his

his predecessors, his grand-father in particular; others to his sons, his son-in-law, and grand-sons. Thus posterity, so far from having any right to complain of the destroying hand of time, seems, in this instance, indebted to its prolific powers. It will not be expected, I presume, much less wished, I dare say, that in this place the different opinions and arguments of the learned in favour of, or against, the legitimacy of such or such books, should be related and discussed; after bringing upon the reader a great deal of trouble and difficulty, the question might remain where Galen left it 1600 years ago: but, in fact, this point is no ways essential to our object, since by omitting to censure Hippocrates for the repetitions, which certainly abound in our collection of his works, and leaving every man at liberty to ascribe to his pen, of the different specimens we shall produce, such only as suit his manner of thinking, nobody

body can have a right to say, that for want of separating the gold from the dross, the father of physic suffers in his reputation. Had some of his writings been lost, the case would have been different; but it is an exuberance, not a deficiency, that causes our embarrassment. The observation of Galen, that the Kings Attalus and Ptolemeus, being equally desirous of collecting valuable books, † used to reward magnificently whoever brought them the writings of celebrated men, accounts very naturally for this exuberance, and all other spurious admixture of this sort: for as it is not improbable that, in the distribution of these premiums, some attention was paid to the size of the manuscripts, it must have been a temptation for copyists to increase the bulk of some, perhaps to suppose others, and, at best, to write in such a

† *Quadringenta millia librorum Alexandriæ arserunt quæ non in Studium, sed in apparatus composita erant. Senec. de tranquill. anim.*

hurry, that a number of faults must inevitably have crept into many. Another conjecture might be offered on this subject, derived from the whimsical fancy, peculiar to those days, of attributing to one person, in their mythology, the actions of several of the same name. Thus one Jupiter, enjoying the credit of having achieved the deeds of a dozen of his relations, might not appear, after his death, unworthy of his distinguished rank in the skies; and the prowess and exploits of seven Hercules being supposed to be the work of one, might induce the monarch of the Gods to acknowledge him for his son. In the same manner as several persons of the name of Hippocrates, are known to have practised physic, both before and after our author, it is not absolutely impossible but his writings and reputation may have received some assistance from so favourable an opportunity.

We cannot censure him for having given

to his works no methodic arrangement, because it is not in our power to know what order he placed them in himself; for that reason, different editors have thought themselves authorized to follow their own choice in that respect: but we may take notice of his frequently running from the subject he had at first undertaken to treat, to expatiate upon others, without any regard to connection.

His style is, in general, concise and difficult; in several places, unintelligible: even his countrymen could not well make it out; and accordingly, many grammarians, long before Erotianus, laboured to explain his obsolete words and expressions. From which circumstance, it is natural to infer, with M. Le Clerc, that, either the Greek language suffered in that short interval a considerable revolution, or that his manner was originally obscure. This last conjecture receives additional strength from the difficulty of determining precisely,

ly, what dialect he wrote in. As a native of *Cos*, the Doric was his own: he seems, however, to have generally used the Ionic; the reason of which preference, some have thought to be his regard for Democritus; but Galen will have it, that his style is a good deal Attic, and tells us, it was the opinion of several people, that he wrote in the old Attic dialect. He practised chiefly in Thessaly and Thracia, the most considerable towns of which, he mentions in his Epidemics. The shortness of his residence in one place, was probably owing to the smallness of those towns; none of which afforded, constantly, sufficient business for the maintenance of a physician. This word, however, signified at that time, a more extensive profession, than it does at present. The three branches of the medical art, now separately exercised, were then united under one head and one name*; the meaning of

* *Ιατρος* from *ιος* arrow.

D

which

which evidently informs us, that surgery was the most ancient means of relief put in practice. It was not before the time of Herophilus and Erasistratus, * that a division, nearly similar to ours, took place. How far this division is necessary, whether the art has received from it any real improvement, or mankind any benefit, are questions, though not foreign to the general object of these sheets, at least, of a nature which renders all discussion unnecessary; as nothing is more unlikely than that so material an alteration should ever happen, in consequence of the opinions or reasonings of any one man. †

From

* *Celsus* Præfat. in lib. 5.

† Many years ago the author had the pleasure of hearing, at Paris, the celebrated *Anthony Petit* express himself on this subject, with his usual clearness and persuasive manner. He had an undeniable right to extol, as he did, the advantages of a re-union; as he practised physic and surgery with the greatest judgment, dexterity, and success. Whoever has frequented

From the various subjects to which Hippocrates gave his attention, and the general manner in which he both practised and wrote, the best method of considering his works, is that adopted by Le Clerc, under the respective heads of Physic, Surgery, and Pharmacy. Of this last part, I have not made a separate article, because, in the course of the two others, it will be more naturally represented. Should any body think that, after the sensible account this gentleman has given of our founder's doctrines, there was no great occasion for this; I will answer ingenuously, that if this reflection should occur after reading both, I have nothing to say for my justification: but that, if it arises only from an averseness to perusing new publications on the same subject, the two-
mented the school of this great anatomist and physician, or is not a stranger to his social and amiable qualifications, will not be displeased at this token of remembrance.

36 *Of the Writings of HIPPOCRATES.*

plans are not the same. The main object of his, as an historian, was to represent, in a general manner, the state of physic, in the time of Hippocrates. The main object of mine, is to enquire, by entering into greater particulars, how far a study of his writings is useful at present; and, at the same time, by freeing them, in a great measure, from the unnecessary minuteness, frequent obscurities, contradictory passages, endless repetitions, and confused manner with which their worth is mingled and disfigured; to spare to others a good part of the labour I once thought myself bound to undergo. His province was confined to facts; mine extends to opinions: in one word, to examine impartially whether the cause is equal to the effect; or whether the facts deserve the opinions they have occasioned, is the object of this attempt. The name of Mr. Le Clerc renders it unnecessary to say, that the hope of equalling his success, is not so great as the wish.

As

As I write for those alone who are entering the medical career, without the presumption that I can afford either instruction or amusement to any other, it may not be superfluous to mention, that Hippocrates is commonly said to have been the first who separated the study of physic from that of philosophy, and made it a distinct object. It is indeed observed by Celsus, that the ancient philosophers were more or less physicians. At that time, the branches of science shooting not yet luxuriantly, each of them might not engross for its cultivation, the whole power of the mind: or the impairment of health being a too frequent consequence of a speculative life, might, as is the opinion of Celsus, make the art of recovering it generally a part of study: but how true soever it may be, that philosophers were acquainted with physic, Hippocrates cannot possibly have first established this distinction; since he tells us himself, that medicine was pro-

feffedly cultivated before him, and since its cultivation necessarily implies some degree of that knowledge, the attainment of which, was called philosophy. This determination to praise him for whatever he did or did not, might have been less glaring, if he had been commended for uniting, instead of separating, two subjects naturally connected; and, in this instance, it would have been but justice to have done it, since he says somewhere, "*those two sciences ought to be jointly cultivated, for a physician who is a philosopher, is equal to a God.*" This seems, therefore, like many other materials of his statue, the substance of which, we shall soon consider, to have been once inconsiderately said, and afterwards without examination repeated.

He was born at *Cos*, according to the most generally received opinion, about 432 years before our christian æra, and died, very much advanced in years, at *Larissa* in *Thessaly*, where his tomb was to be seen,

in the time of his biographer, Soranus *.
A swarm of bees chancing, in their wan-
dering flight, to settle upon that spot, no
wonder cures were performed with their
honey: but it is, perhaps, wonderful that
the modesty of writers confined the use of
that honey to the aphthæ of children.

* A physician of the methodic sect, who lived un-
der Trajan.

C H A P. III.

OF BANDAGES, LUXATIONS, and
FRACTURES.*

A *Bandage* is to be considered in the act of applying it, and after it is applied. In applying it, expedition and the patient's ease, are the two great objects: when it is applied, it ought to look neat, and to fit the part. For that reason, bandages must necessarily have different

* Besides the chapters in which Hippocrates professedly treats of the different operations of surgery, there are many places in his works describing his manner of proceeding in cases belonging to this head. From an attentive perusal of the whole, such extracts have been made, as were thought either to deserve particular notice, on account of their worth, or likely to give a just idea of the state of our art in his time.

shapes †. If they should prove insufficient for keeping the parts in a proper situation, a suture will do it.

Luxations.—When a bone is forced out of its place, and when it is broken, extensions are necessary to make it recover its natural situation and shape. The hands of two powerful men pulling different ways, may commonly prove sufficient, but very often in practice, one makes use of strings, or leather straps, weights, pullies, and various other machines, calculated for the purpose of acquiring a greater power. After the reduction of a luxated, or broken bone, the limb is to be dressed with ce-rates, bolsters, and a swathe: splints are added in fractures. As to the cradle, which is often employed to keep a broken

† The names of the principal ones are, *ascia*, *firmum*, *oculus*, *rhombus*, *et dimidiatum*; taken from the different figures they were like. Galen torments himself to explain some parts of this chapter, which, perhaps, are not susceptible of an explanation.

thigh

42 *Of Bandages, Luxations, and Fractures.*

thigh in a proper situation, I am dubious whether to approve or condemn it: as both with and without it, a case may be well and ill managed. But when it is employed, it ought to extend the whole length of the extremity, a partial one doing more harm than good. The best rule for judging of the proper degree of tightness in the dressing, is to enquire of the patient what sensation it produces. If he answers that he feels a gentle compression, especially on the broken part, you may rest satisfied. At the end of four and twenty hours, it ought to be rather more felt than less, with a moderate and soft tumour of the adjacent parts: but on the third day, the ligature should appear pretty loose. Every third day, the strings of the splints are to be gently tightened, in case they have got loose; otherwise, there is no occasion: and if you do not apprehend an excoriation, nor hear any complaint of an itching sensation, the
splints

splints may be suffered to remain unre-
moved beyond the 20th day. Whenever
the limb is inspected, it should be much
fomented with warm water. During the
ten first days of a fracture, the patient's
diet must be thin and sparing. Meat and
wine are improper, and the bowels are to
be kept in a soluble state: generally speak-
ing, fractured ribs form a callus in ten
days; bones of the fore-arm in thirty;
the arm in forty; and the thigh in fifty.
But in this sort of observations, one must
always remember the varieties which the
differences of constitution and age never
fail to occasion, 'Tis also to be remarked,
that in a fracture of the thigh, the exten-
sion ought to be particularly great: the
muscles being so strong, that, notwith-
standing the effect of bandages, their con-
traction is apt to shorten the limb. This
is a deformity so deplorable, that when
there is reason to apprehend it, I would
advise the patient to suffer the other thigh

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to be broken also, in order to have them both of one length.

Fractures.—A fracture is often accompanied with an injury to the fleshy parts, occasioned by the pieces of the broken bone; and the wound * may be internal or external. The signs of an internal wound, are pain and pulsation, with a quick return of the swelling of the adjacent parts, when by the pressure of the finger it has disappeared. As soon as this is suspected, the limb must be unbound and dressed with a cerate only, in which a little tar is mixed. External wounds are best treated by compresses dipped in wine, and covered with flannel. If the bones have made their way through the flesh and skin, they require some force and the assistance of iron instruments to be replaced,

* Ελκος, *ulcer*. A word which he uses to express both a wound and an ulcer, in the sense we have affixed to them. Sometimes also he employs the more natural word τραυμα, to signify a recent wound.

Even

Even sometimes these means are insufficient; in which case, it is necessary to cut off the prominent parts, unless you expect them to fall by exfoliation. When an accident of this kind happens to the arm, or to the thigh, life is in great danger; indeed the patient seldom recovers, on account of the wounds which these great bones inflict.

After replacing the bones which have thus pierced through the flesh, it is very advantageous to administer a dose of soft hellebore; but this must be done the same day of the reduction, not on any other. The patient is to be kept absolutely without food; allowing only a little honey mixed with water, to those of a bilious habit; water alone to the others. And you must persevere in this diet for fourteen days, when there is fever; during seven, if there is none.

When a luxation of the humerus happens, the head of the bone always drops
in

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in the arm-pit; at least, I never have found it any where else. I will not positively say that it cannot be driven outwardly, but I will deny the possibility of its taking place in the superior part, though many physicians are of a different opinion. Some time ago, by maintaining this sentiment, I incurred the displeasure of these gentlemen, and gave the public an indifferent idea of my knowledge. It was with much difficulty that I brought some to my way of thinking.

There are many methods of reducing this bone; which chiefly consist in pushing the head of it in its cavity, by means of a stick, having, at one end, a round head on a slender neck. The shape of a *pestil* is not an unfavourable one; or you may lay the patient upon his back on the floor, and having fixed a sort of ball under your foot, seat yourself opposite him; then taking the hand of the luxated arm between yours, and applying your foot to
the

the head of the humerus, by degrees force it back to its place. Sometimes the ligaments † of this articulation are so relaxed, that, unable to resist the contraction of the muscles, a luxation happens upon the least motion of the arm: which, in consequence of that very relaxation, is also easily reduced. Bandages, plasters, and frictions, ought in this case to be tried. It is also useful to fill up the cavity of the arm-pit with soft wool, to fasten, if possible, the articulation: but if these means prove little beneficial, it becomes necessary to use a more powerful method, I mean burning the skin: not, as is the common practice, in the anterior, posterior, and superior parts of the articulation, where, I have said, the head of the bone does not move; but in the arm-pit, where it constantly

† *Νευροι, nerves*: a word to which he gives the triple signification of tendons, ligaments, and nerves; though, in some places, a *nerve* seems to be meant by the word *ῥοις*.

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lodges itself. This operation is performed by pulling the skin down with the fingers, and running through it, in one or several places, an oblong thin iron made white-hot for that purpose. This must be done quickly, and great care ought to be taken not to hurt the glands situated in that part, nor any thing but the skin. Afterwards, when the ulcers are almost healed, the arm ought to be bound to the side for a long while. This articulation is remarkable for being essentially different in men, from what it is in all other animals.

The luxation of the wrist is interior, or exterior: the first is the most common. Nothing is easier than the diagnostic; for if the luxation is interior, the fingers cannot bend; and if it is exterior, they cannot extend themselves.

The head of the femur may be forced out of the deep cavity of the hip into four different places, viz. internally, externally, back-

backwards, and forwards. The first is the most frequent; next to that the second; a luxation in the two others very seldom happens.

If a luxation of the bones of the leg is accompanied with a wound, and a swelling of its articulation with the foot, one must not attempt a reduction: for should the bones remain in the place one had forced them into, gangrene, convulsions, and death, would soon follow that rash operation: whenever it has been performed, the patient has seldom outlived the seventh day; whereas life is commonly preserved by contenting oneself with keeping the limb in an easy horizontal position, and carefully avoiding to move it. Compresses dipt in wine, made moderately warm (for cold in these cases brings on convulsion), cerates, in which a little tar is mixed, or the leaves of beets or colt's foot, gently boiled in red astringent wine, are proper substances for dressing both the luxated

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and wounded parts. What I say here of the leg, may also be understood of the femur with the knee, of the cubitus with the hand, &c. with this difference only, that a replacement of this sort in the upper extremities, proves sooner mortal if it maintains itself.

It is proper to observe in this place that, although the word luxation implies a positive displacement, still it admits of different degrees: for in one case the bone may be farther from its natural seat, than in another. The use of this remark consists in a fact which it is important to know, viz. that the less a bone is removed from its place, the easier is the reposition; and, in case of an impossibility of reduction, the less serious are the consequences. However, when a reposition is incomplete, the adjacent parts, in course of time, get thin and emaciated; especially on the side of the limb opposite to that where the bone is removed. I will conclude these observations

vations by one which admits of no exception. Whenever it is right to replace a dislocated bone, the sooner it is done the better; for by reducing it before a swelling takes place, the operation is easier to the surgeon, and less painful to the patient.

In the mortification which sometimes supervenes to luxations and fractures, one must not take off the gangrenous part before nature has effected a separation: for without that prudent delay, some of the sound parts might be cut off in the operation, and the pain would be so acute, as to throw the patient in danger of his life. Many a man has thus fallen a sacrifice to the rashness of his surgeon.

R E M A R K S.

This account of Hippocrates's knowledge in the preceding subjects, will, it is presumed, without being much commented upon, enable the student to perceive the points in which modern practice agrees

with, or differs from, the practice of two thousand years ago. He will admire the long strides of our Art, at a time which we have been accustomed to call its infancy. From that very circumstance, and the mention of cotemporary practitioners, some of which are allowed to have been not despicable, he will, perhaps, find himself inclined to question the exactitude of the date commonly ascribed to the birth of Physic. But whatever his sentiments on that matter may be, it will become him to observe, that if Hippocrates had been acquainted with our method of amputation, he would not have remained, as for want of it he was obliged to do, a spectator of the death of his patients in complicated fractures. He will, at the same time, have occasion to lament the tardiness of genius in some of the simplest inventions, when he recollects that, notwithstanding the progress of anatomy, it was not before last century, that a method

of stopping the blood, during the operation, was thought of*. The hemorrhages attending amputations before this invention, made the ancients, with great reason, afraid of attempting them: and no wonder Celsus thought them attended with the greatest danger. But as soon as a French surgeon had taught the way of compressing the arteries; that operation, instead of being the most dangerous, became one of the safest of surgery: and the loss of a limb in the most complicated fractures, if immediately submitted to, often prevented the loss of life.

Though in the opinion of a deservedly celebrated practitioner†, “ much less alteration has taken place in the reduction of fractures and luxations, since the times of Hippocrates, Galen, and Cel-

* See Van Swieten, vol. 1. p. 814. where the improvements of *Morell's* method into *Petit's* tourniquet, are described.

† Mr. Pott, vol. 1. p. 378.

“sus, than an inquirer might expect, or
“the subject is capable of;” still we will
beg his leave for applying to this particular branch, a general observation of his:
“Reduction of the number of instruments
“to be used in an operation, and an extreme simplicity and plainness in those
“which may be required, are a part of the
“merit of modern surgery.” ‡ I will not
in this place make any farther extracts
from his excellent book, because a study of
the whole is essentially necessary. Therefore, referring to the *Remarks on Fractures, &c.* as to the best criterion for judging, not only of the doctrine which has been exposed, but also of modern practice, I will confine myself to a few words on what Hippocrates has said concerning mortification.

He positively enjoins, not to perform amputation in cases attended with gangrene, before nature has effected a separa-

‡ Vol. i. p. 165.

tion of the dead parts from the sound ones. Many fruitless attempts of relieving sooner, by pursuing a different plan, have sufficiently confirmed that he was in the right. So far he claims the merit of having laid down a rule, the invariable truth of which, has required much time and sad experience to be satisfactorily ascertained. But to those who, in the history of facts, think it not uninteresting to have some causes assigned, it will appear neither superfluous, nor detractory, to mention, that he was a perfect stranger to the reason of the justness of his maxim. He thought the pain overcame nature if the patient sunk, after undergoing an operation, in which some of the sound muscles were comprehended; and being not aware that mortification quickly creeps underneath before its signs appear at the surface, did not suspect the unavailing business of lopping off branches, whilst the root is remaining. Had he followed in deliver-

ing this precept his favourite sententious manner, and inserted it in the form of an aphorism, commentators would not have failed to have ascribed for his motive, the prevailing theory of the age they lived in; and thus his wisdom would for ever have kept pace with our improvements; but by attempting to account for what he did not understand, he has added an instance, to the many proofs we have already, of wonderful things, whether moral or natural, sinking a great deal in our opinion, as soon as the reason is known.

C H A P. IV.

Of WOUNDS and ULCERS.

NO liquids, but wine, ought to be applied to wounds, except to those which affect the articulation: for, in general, dryness is conducive to health, humidity to disease. Hence summer is more favourable than winter to their treatment, and the equinoctial times still more so than summer. Rest is in these cases essentially beneficial. It is an advantageous circumstance when a wound, except in the abdomen *, is attended with the loss of some blood: for by that means, the wound itself, and the surrounding parts are less

* For this and the preceding exception, there is no reason assigned.

liable to great inflammations. However a degree of inflammation, sufficient to produce speedy suppuration, is absolutely necessary: without it, the wounded and contused muscles turn into *sanies*, and fungosities arise. Even in old ulcers, this effusion of blood is of service.

Recent wounds stand in need of agglutination, not of emollient remedies. These ought to be reserved for old ulcers, the surrounding parts of which are swollen and hard. In these cases, it is proper to apply cataplasms; and they should be made very large. Before their application, the ulcers ought to be well absterged with a sponge and dry linen. If an erysipelas supervenes, the patient must be purged: to prevent it, the leaves of *wood* † pounded, and mixed with linseeds, are efficacious. If the wound is in a good state, but the adjacent parts inflamed, a cataplasm, composed of the flower of *lentils*, boiled in

† *Glaſti folia*, used at present by dyers only.

wine, will be found serviceable: but if you want to close and heal, you must employ the leaves of the *black-berry bush*, *nasturtium*, *park leaves*, or *allum*, macerated in wine or vinegar.

For the wounds of the head and ears, whether recent or old, unripe grapes, myrrh and honey, with a small proportion of nitre, and a still smaller one of *flower of brass*, boiled together in wine, during three days at least, make a good composition. There are many other remedies remarkably useful, when an acrid corrosive humour spreads itself in ulcers; such as black hellebore, dried root of arum, frankincense, saffron, burnt allum and nitre, the green bark of the fig-tree, &c. Others have the power of preventing recent dry wounds from suppurating: these are trefoil boiled in white vinegar, the dregs of oil of olive, pounded lead, and tar water.

C H A P. V.

Of WOUNDS in the HEAD.

THE sutures of the head, which are many, and different in number, as well as situation, in different persons, create much difficulty and a great many mistakes in our judgments, concerning the state of the cranium: for they often resemble the impression of arrows, and both are frequently mistaken for fissures*. These are sometimes easily discovered, as when they are large, and upon, or very near, the wounded place. But sometimes

* From the track of a fracture, or fissure, the pericranium is always found loose and detached; whereas, to the arterial sulcus, and to the uninjured suture, it is always adherent.——Mr. Pott, vol. i. p. 171.

also they are so capillary, and so distant from the seat of the wound, that they frustrate our utmost endeavours and attention. The depth and extent of a contusion, is another arduous matter to determine by sight. The condition of the hair near the wound must be diligently inspected: if a part of it is cut off by the weapon, and some driven into the flesh, there is reason to apprehend that the bone is bare. Should this be the case, which either the eye or *# a probe* *# specillum* will ascertain, one may depend *side page 70* on the bone being injured †. In enlarging *Not as the* the wound for the sake of a better inspection, *bottom* great care must be taken not to make any section on the temples, nor about the

† It is uncertain whether by the *bareness* of the bone he meant a detachment of the pericranium, or not. If he did, a sign of that importance, though not reckoned a constant proof of a fracture, ought to have been longer dwelt upon: if he did not, there is still less truth in his remark.

tempo-

temporal artery; † for convulsions on the opposite side would be the immediate consequence. After the section, fill up the wound with linen, and apply over it a cataplasim made of very fine wheat flour, boiled in vinegar till it is very thick and glutinous. Examine the wound the next day; and if you suspect a fissure, without being able to discover it, a black liquor may with advantage be spread over the naked part of the bone: for if on the following day, when all the liquor is absorbed, you should perceive a black line, the case is made evident. This line is then to be scraped, but if the blackness does not disappear under the *scalper*, there is no doubt but the fissure penetrates the whole substance. Thus circumstanced, should it be thought proper to trepan, the operation must not be put off longer than three days,

† φλεψ, *vein*: a word like *vessel* among us, expressive of both arteries and veins: ἀρτηρία, or *full of air*, signifying the wind-pipe alone.

especially

especially in summer, and ought to be performed with a small *terebra*; * remembering at the same time, that in young people the cranium is thinner than in old ones. The *terebra*, during the operation, is to be frequently taken out and immersed in cold water, for fear of communicating any heat to the bone: nor is the perforation to penetrate entirely the cranium, lest the *dura mater* should receive some injury, either from the instrument, or from a long exposure to the air. To avoid this last inconvenience, by which it is often putrefied and destroyed, the piece of bone within the *terebra* should be suffered to remain till it comes off of itself. † The management of the wound requires afterwards a great

* The advantage of a large circle is great, the inconvenience imaginary.—Mr. Pott, v. 1. p. 176. *note*.

† What difference there can be in exposing the membrane to the air, at one time or at another, is not easy to conceive. As to the real danger of this exposure, it is not supposed by the moderns to be so great as the

great deal of care, for the cranium is apt to be diseased from its bad state.

In large fractures there is little danger, provided the dura mater is not offended: there is then no necessity for the operation, nor must one attempt to take out the broken pieces till they give way themselves. As to elevating any depressed places, that may be done when some of the loose pieces have come off. When the patient is to die, a fever arises, in winter, before the 14th day; in summer, about the 7th: the wound loses its inflamed colour, looks yellow, sometimes pale, is covered with a glutinous and salt *sanies*; the bone itself blackens, but turns white again towards the conclusion: pustules appear in the tongue, a palsy frequently takes place on the side opposite to the wound: delirium and death ensue.

the ancients believed it.—Mr. Pott says, “this is a point concerning which the best practitioners have differed, and concerning which, we still stand in need of information.” Vol. 1. p. 150.

C H A P. VI.

Of the PILES.

A Defluxion of bile, or of pituitous matter, to the veins of the anus, inflame the blood which those veins contain. The veins themselves being inflamed, attract the blood of the others near them; and being filled with it, raise and swell the internal parts of the rectum. The little heads of the veins are then conspicuous; † and partly from the pressure of

† The nature of these prominent knobs has been long a matter of dispute: some thinking them a varicose swelling of the veins, others a real effusion of blood in the cellular membrane. This second opinion is maintained by the illustrious professor *Cullen*, and

F

render-

of the fæces, partly from their own fullness, are liable to break and emit blood, particularly at the time of dejections.

There are different methods of curing this complaint; every one of which consists in destroying the tumefied parts of the veins. This may be done by fire; for that purpose, seven or eight little iron rods should be heated at once to a degree of whiteness; the reason of employing so many is, that, after having made use of

rendered extremely probable from his manner of supporting it. He thinks (according to the notes taken at his lectures, by a friend of mine) 1st. The veins of those parts are too small to produce such tumours by their dilatation; 2dly. If the tumours were varicose, they would be soft, and yield to the pressure of the finger; on the contrary, they are hard, and disappear not when pressed. 3dly. On dissection, the veins seem not to be dilated, but some distinct cells appear loaded with blood. With the respect due to his authority, dissection seems to be the only means of deciding this question: but opportunities have not as yet been sufficiently frequent, or rather sufficiently attended to, for the removal of all doubts.

one,

one, the patient may not be obliged to wait till the same is heated again; every knob is then to be burnt with these rods. Should they happen to be situated high in the intestine, it would then be proper to dilate it with a convenient instrument*, and afterwards to introduce one of the rods near enough the prominent places to destroy them without touching them. After the operation, the parts are to be dressed, during six days, with the seeds of *lentils* and *orobus*, finely pounded and boiled. The seventh day, with sponge and honey spread over some linen.

The knobs may also be destroyed by pressing and turning them between the fingers. *Galls* macerated in astringent wine are afterwards applied; or they may be at once cut off, and the parts dressed with burnt *flower of brass*, spread on an oiled cloth. But the surgeon should be cautioned not to be much surprized, if this

* Κατόπτρον.

operation should not be attended with any loss of blood; for an incision in this place, as in the articulations of the hand or thigh, causes no effusion of blood, unless some of the hollow veins, situated near them, are offended †.

For the weaker sex, one may confine oneself to the application of astringent remedies.

† For this production, and for some others (which I will either suppress, or greatly shorten, as exceeding those of *Homer's* sleepy moments) Hippocrates may be acquitted, by supposing the whole spurious: but what is to be said for his commentators?

C H A P. VII.

Of the FISTULA in ANO.

THE frequent exercise of either riding, or rowing, occasions a contusion of the soft parts surrounding the anus, which, producing an accumulation of blood, is the origin of the fistula. If a tubercle appears it should be opened before matter is formed, that the intestine may not be injured by its coming to suppuration. But if there is already a fistula, the depth of it is to be ascertained, by probing it with a stem of garlick. The primæ viæ must be cleansed, and afterwards the following method pursued: twist round a bit of strong linen, some horse-hair, that it may not decay; and by means of a pew-

ter needle †, thrust it into the fistula : at the same time, put the second finger of the left hand into the anus, and when it has reached the head of the needle, which ought to be for that purpose a little bent that way, lay hold of one end of the linen, and draw the needle down the other. The remaining part of the treatment, consists in tying the two ends of the string close to the anus, and in tightening the knot every day till the fistula is entirely destroyed. Afterwards, a good deal of burnt *verdegris*, mixed with very small bits of sponge, is to be thrown up by means of the needle. This dressing is to be repeated every day, taking care to wash the parts well every time after the injection. A sponge covered with honey ought to be introduced, in order to prevent a coalition of the parts before they are entirely sound. If this method should prove insufficient, it is adviseable to make use of the knife.

† Μανη, *specillum*, commonly a probe.

C H A P. VIII.

Of the EMPYEMA.

WHEN matter is formed in the breast, sometimes it occasions a tumour externally, which at once points out the properest place for the operation: but if the surgeon is not assisted by this circumstance, he must, in order to ascertain in which side the matter lies, shake the patient by the shoulder*, and listen attentively to the fluctuation. This me-

* In one of the descriptions he gives of this operation, (for there are several) previous to shaking the shoulder, he pulled out the patient's tongue, and poured in, I believe he meant in the wind-pipe, an acrid mixture, with a view of loosening the *pus*. Vid. sect. v. de morb. lib. ii. p. 34.—*Foesius's edition is the only one referred to in this book.*

thod will, in general, answer his purpose. However, the liquor may be so thick as to fluctuate but obscurely; in which case, the following contrivance is to be put in practice †. Dip a linen cloth in water coloured with some red earth, wrap up all the breast with this cloth, and observe the part that first grows dry; that part is the place which contains the matter. It is to be wished it may be in the left cavity, as the operation is attended with less danger in that side than in the right: for in the same proportion that the parts of the right side are stronger than those of the left, their diseases are also more violent. The place being fixed upon, first make an incision ‡ in the skin, between the ribs, as near the diaphragm as the case allows, taking great care not to hurt it; then with a guarded instrument, the naked part of which ought to be something less than an

† De Morb. lib. iii.

‡ This operation was also performed by burning.

inch long, penetrate into the breast: when the pus is let out, dress with a tent, which, once a day, you will pull out, in order to draw more matter. At the end of ten days, all the matter being exhausted, some warm wine and oil must be let in by means of a little tube; that the lungs, which have been accustomed to the pressure of a liquid, may not too suddenly get dry. This liquor, if injected in the morning, must be drawn in the evening, or drawn in the morning, if injected in the evening. When the *pus* is thin like water, or feels glutinous to the finger, and is considerable in quantity, a little pewter canula is to be introduced till the matter is entirely drained. Whiteness and mildness in the pus, with consistence in the blood, are favourable signs: but if, on the first day, it looks like the yellow part of an egg, or flows thick on the second, with a pale green hue, and a strong smell, as soon as it is let out, the patient dies.

CHAP.

C H A P. IX.

Of the Extraction of the Dead Fœtus.

IF the fœtus presents itself transversely, without having either of its hands out of the uterus, there is reason to think it alive; and in that case, the patient being laid down upon a sheet, let four strong women lay hold each of a hand or foot, and shake her violently ten times: this is to be repeated again, in order to make the fœtus change its unnatural situation. But if in this transversal position a hand comes out, which is a sign of the fœtus being dead, that hand is to be pulled out as much as possible; and having covered two of your fingers with the dried skin of a skate, to prevent their slipping, strip the head

Of the Extraction of the Dead Fœtus 75

head of the humerus of its muscles, and cut off the arm in its articulation. The head of the fœtus is then to be pulled out all at once, if possible; or if not, to be cut in different parts. Afterwards, by running a scalpel between the ribs, or in the neck, a good deal of air will disengage itself, occasion the fœtus to subside, and render its extraction easy*.

* For a description of another method of extraction, see *Sect. v.* p. 183. I have preferred this as better, though less minute, than the other; and have chiefly taken it from the end of *Sect. vi.* p. 193.

head of the humerus of its muscles, and cut off the arm in its articulation. The head of the femur is then to be pulled out

C H A P. X.

cut in different parts. Afterwards, by running a scapel between the ribs, or in

Of the CURVATURE of the SPINE.

itself, occasion the fetus to subside, and

A Curvature of the spine sometimes is the consequence of illness, sometimes also is the cure of it in adults. In the upper part of the vertebræ, above their union with the diaphragm, it is commonly incurable : but under it, varicous veins in the thigh, legs, and groins, or a long-continued looseness of the bowels, have not unfrequently straightened the intorsion. It happens also that in this sort of gibbosities, the kidneys and bladder become diseased, or abscesses, inclined to suppuration, and of a lingering nature, form themselves in the hollows of the sides without lessening the deformity. Persons afflicted

afflicted with this kind of curvature, are more subject to an emaciation of the lower extremities, than those whose hump is higher. Their beard and other signs of virility, appear also later; and they are more liable to sterility: in both cases, internal suppurations frequently take place*, though some are seen, especially those of a corpulent habit, to attain a great age without any particular complaint. Some physicians are not afraid of promising a cure

* ΟΙΣΙ Δ' ΑΝ ΗΥΞΗΘΗΣΟΙΣΙ ΗΔΗ ΤΟ ΣΩΜΑ. ΞΥΝΤΑΙ ΚΥΦΩΣΙΣ, ΤΟΥΤΟΙΣΙΝ ΑΤΑΥΤΙΚΩ ΜΕΤ ΤΗΣ ΝΟΣΟΥ ΠΑΡΟΥΣΗΣ ΚΡΙΣΙΝ ΠΟΙΕΙ Η ΚΥΦΩΣΙΣ. *When a curvature of the spine takes place at the age of maturity, it evidently proves the crisis of the disorder, which the patient may happen to have at that time; sect. vi. p. 77. I won't say that this is the passage which Dr. Cameron alluded to, in speaking to Mr. Pott, and which gave him a desire of trying caustics in the palsy of the lower extremities; (see vol. iii. p. 370) because there is some difference between a curvature, and an abscess; also between mentioning one particular disease, and including them all: but having, I suppose, overlooked the true one, I have noted this on account of some similarity.*

in

78 *Of the Curvature of the Spine.*

in all cases, by means of the ladder†. I allow that in some instances, as when a palsy is produced by a sudden contusion of the spine, it may prove beneficial, or at least is the only proper thing to be tried: but, upon the whole, it ought to be remembered, that in every liberal art, in physic especially, it is unbecoming, as well as impolitic, to raise the public expectation by the exhibition of a great apparatus, and after all to do nothing satisfactory.

† This operation consisted in tying the patient to a ladder, and letting it down from a great height, having previously fastened the end of the cord to something immoveable. The intention was, by determining the violence of the concussion to the intorted part, to force it straight.

CHAP.

C H A P. XI.

Of the Diseases of the Eyes.

THE sight is liable to be impaired or destroyed by specks of different colours: those of a blue cast come on of themselves, and prove incurable: those of a sea-green form themselves by slow degrees, and often attack both eyes, one after the other. The progress of these last may be stopt by early treatment; which consists in purging the head, and burning the veins. As to the spots which are of a middle cast, between sea-water colour and blue; when they happen to a child, they commonly disappear in course of time.

In these complaints bleeding is of no use; nor does it avail much to try any method

method whilst the body is growing : but afterwards scraping the eye-lids, or burning them inwardly with an iron, heated under the degree of whiteness ; also burning the veins of the back, and penetrating as deep as the bone ; or burning with a sponge dipt into some oil, without reaching quite so far ; are serviceable methods. When the sight is impaired without any external marks, the method of cure consists in making an incision on the sinciput ; then, removing the skin from the bone, let out some water by wounding the bone itself. Evacuations from the head and bowels are proper in those inflammations of the eyes which spread annually, and in an epidemic manner.

C H A P. XII.

*Mention of several other Operations and
Remarks.*

I Have in the foregoing chapters given an account of the most *considerable* parts of Hippocrates's surgery, if by that word one is to understand the usefulness of the operations, and the accuracy of their descriptions: but if either the surgeon's boldness, not to make use of a harsher name, or the patient's danger, can give a claim to such a title, what remains to be mentioned, not unlike the latter end of the preceding chapter, is certainly the most considerable part.

When a disease of the liver, which from the pain it was accompanied with seems to have been inflammatory, did not yield

G

to

82 *Mention of several other Operations*

to common methods of treatment, but on the contrary, occasioned a swelling and prominence in that *viscus*; he advises burning it in eight places, by means of wooden spindles dipt in boiling oil, or of a sort of mushroom, which being set on fire, he directs to be applied on the parts till it is consumed, and to be renewed as often as it may be thought necessary. The disorders of the spleen he treated in the same manner, except that the number of eschars amounted to ten.

In a complaint, which he calls the disorder of the hollow veins *, derived, in his opinion, from a morbid state of the kidneys, but which in reality was a rheumatic fever; after having increased the patient's corpulency by giving him a great deal of milk, he would have the *scapula* burnt in four places; the *hip* in three; the *glutæi inferiores* in two; the middle of the

* De Intern. Affect. sect. v. p. 102.

thigh

thigh in two; and the ankle in one: for by that method, he says, the progress of the disorder is stopt every where.

He also burnt the back in consumptions; opened the kidneys to let out sand or matter; cupped and pricked gouty articulations with a needle †; cauterised in eight different places to cure the head-ach, or made a large incision round the forehead in the shape of a crown; opened varices, and run a needle through the eyelids to cure an inversion of the eye-lashes, by a method similar to that for the fistula in ano.

Like us he scarified swelled legs, thighs, and the scrotum; extracted polypous excrescences of the nose (by a method not very intelligible, but most cruel) or cut them off; and in the *ascites*, tapped in the umbilical or iliac region.

The first thought that occurs upon reading such a strange list, is the great con-

† *Sect. v. p. 116.* where a fit of the gout is described under the name of a *typhus*.

84 *Mention of several other Operations*

tempt of pain, or the great apprehension of death, which that nation must have had among whom such a practice prevailed. Contempt of pain, unnatural as it is, may be tolerably well affected on extraordinary occasions; but a sick chamber is no favourable scene for the display of heroism. As to apprehension of death, there is no reason to think that nature shrunk more in that country, than in others, at the idea of dissolution. We must therefore abandon this manner of accounting for the introduction of such attempts to preserve a miserable life, and for the passiveness of a people in suffering such cruel experiments to be made upon themselves. But were those experiments really made? May we not, without appearing too sceptical, call in question this latter part of ancient surgery having ever been in common practice? Supposing that, from extraordinary rashness on one side, and blind confidence on the other, a few persons consented to be

be thus cut, and scalped, and burnt; does it seem likely that the consequences of these operations (omitting to mention the torments of the sufferers) were such as to establish their utility? If the powers of life, already weakened by a long complaint, proved sufficient to resist the additional danger of internal effusions of blood, violent inflammations, and internal formation of matter; whatever alteration these methods may be supposed to have worked in the original disease, there is no doubt but that the recovery must have been so long, the condition so lingering, and the constitution so shattered, as to have proved no great inducement for others to undergo the same treatment.

It is remarkable enough that Hippocrates does not mention his having made himself any one of these trials, nor even their having been made by others. It is true, he says once, that *consumptive people recover if they are burnt, or submit early*

86 *Mention of several other Operations*

to the operation of empyema: but as our knowledge of this complaint will not permit us to place much confidence in his words; such an assertion is no great proof of his experience in this matter; and consequently leaves a sort of prejudice against other points in themselves still more unlikely to be true. Somewhere else he says, the patient must die, if the operation does not take place: but this negative mode of commendation from a man, who bound his disciples by an oath not to cut any body for the stone, hardly can appear sufficient. Since he was deterred, through motives of humanity, from attempting this painful operation, it would have been but consistent with his principles, to have explained why he practised others still more terrible. For these reasons, I shall continue to look upon those parts of his surgery in the light of rather a transmitted doctrine, than practised methods; till somebody, more conversant with his writings,

writings, shews that I ought to change my opinion. Surgery constituted so great a part of the practice of Hippocrates, that it has been advanced, not without some appearance of truth, that he chiefly owed his reputation and celebrity to his skill in reducing luxated and broken bones. What advantages the modern practitioner is likely to derive from a more intimate acquaintance with his chyrurgical works, may perhaps be conjectured from the preceding synopsis. For my part, did I suppose such an acquaintance essential, I would not hesitate to stop in the middle of my career; but having adopted a different opinion, and being persuaded that nothing contributes so much to the real advancement of a *practical art*, as contracting what is merely *learned* in it; I will not conceal my disapprobation of consuming much time in this sort of acquirements. The profession of a surgeon requires of him, as a scholar, to

know what was his Art in its beginnings; that knowledge is ornamental: but it becomes him, as a sensible man, to think of what his Art is, and what it may be, rather than of what it has been. Mr. Pott says somewhere, that he who is best acquainted with the ancients, will be, *cæteris paribus*, the best surgeon: I will not oppose to this assertion some passages of his works, in which he speaks of them as I think; because, from the age some of the authors whom he quotes lived in, it seems he gives that word a very comprehensive meaning: but I will at once express my sentiments on this head by confessing, that, between the age of Hippocrates and ours, the distance does not appear to me greater, than between his method of shaking women in labour, and Mr. Sigault's separation of the symphysis of the pubis; or between the attempt of straightening incurved spines by the ladder, and Mr. Pott's method by caustics.

PART II.

CHAPTER I.

First System of DISEASES.

DISEASES, though apparently very different from one another, have all but one common source. The bodies of men and of animals receive their nourishment from food, drink, and *spirit*: this spirit is called *wind* within the body, and *air* out of it. Wind is nothing else but a fluxion, an effusion of air. When this fluxion is rapid, trees are rooted out of the ground, the sea rages, and the most heavy ships are tossed about. This air our eyes cannot discern, but our reason manifestly discovers. It exists every where, nothing without it can exist. It fills the space
that

that separates the heavens from the earth, and penetrates the seas to keep up life in its inhabitants. The sun, the moon, and the planets, move in it. Winter is produced by the condensation of this fluid: summer by its rarefaction*. It is the chief support of our lives, for we can live two or three days, or even more, without eating or drinking; but must perish in a few minutes if deprived of its assistance. It is also the cause of our diseases: in fact, it is hardly possible that any should arise from another source. A too great or too small quantity, with the noxious particles which it conveys, will account for them all. The two sorts of fevers, for instance, one of which called plague, because it attacks at once either the human species or any other, according to the nature of the venom that produces it; and the other, which is the most common of all complaints, because it accompanies almost

* Πραϋναι γαλῶν, soft and serene.

every

every disorder *, particularly those attended with inflammation; these two sorts, I say, arise equally from the air. The first kind which invades a whole species, can come from nothing else; and as to the second, though it may appear to have its source in some errors of diet, air will be found to be the principal agent: for if it is said that a man ate or drank too much, it also must be granted that he took in too much air: and indeed this will soon appear from the frequent eructations which it does not fail in these cases to produce. When the food, from its too great quantity, remains longer in the stomach than it should, the same thing happens to the air, which, from an obstruction in the bowels, spreads itself in all the parts of the body, and chills the blood. From this

* It did not escape Hippocrates's penetration, that fevers are, in general, secondary diseases; or, in the language of Sydenham, an effort of nature to restore health.

refrigeration of the blood a *horror* ensues, the intenseness of which, is in proportion to the quantity and degree of coldness in the air. Tremors also happen, because the blood, alarmed † by this sense of cold, takes refuge towards the warmest corners. Its leaps and bounds, make the whole body quiver: the places which it has deserted shake for want of it, and those to which it has run, tremble from its accumulation. Yawnings, like tremors, precede also a fever, because so much air pent up rushes at once towards the mouth, and forces it open, in order to find a passage ‡ out. The distention of the vessels of the head by the air, causes the head-ach and pulsations on the temples. As to the different sorts of colic, every

† This is not unlike the opinion of the justly celebrated Mr. John Hunter, concerning the *life* of the blood.

‡ It happens unluckily that in the act of yawning, air comes into the lungs, instead of getting out.

body

body must see they come from nothing else. When the pituita descending from the head meets the air in its ascent from the lungs, a cough is the consequence. If the air directs its course towards the pores of the skin, it enlarges them, and facilitates the admission of humidity : hence the dropsy with its train of symptoms. That this is a fact, may be proved from two circumstances ; viz. 1st. The prodigious difference in the apparent quantity of water when it is first drawn, and a little while after : a deception entirely owing to the bulk of air which soon disengages itself from its union with the water. 2dly. The abdomen filling itself again in the space of three days : a phenomenon which air alone can produce and account for. The epilepsy is explained by the same means ; and, indeed, was I to extend this system to every disorder, it would equally prove satisfactory.

C H A P. II.

Second System of DISEASES.

ALL diseases originate partly from phlegm and bile within us, partly from fatigue and wounds: some from excessive heat or cold, others from excessive dryness or humidity. Eating and drinking, heat and cold, fatigue and wounds, also the senses of vision and of hearing, though in a less degree, contribute to inflame the bile and phlegm. The nature of phlegm is extremely cold; that of blood extremely hot; the bile is something less hot than the blood. *Rigor* in diseases comes from external causes, such as wind, water, cold air, &c. or from internal ones, as our food; but chiefly from phlegm and bile, or either of them mixing
itself

itself with the blood, and thus occasioning some degree of condensation. This refrigeration of the blood is necessarily felt by the whole body, and is the cause of rigor and tremor; which, if carried to a considerable degree, is called horror. The reason of more or less fever constantly succeeding the cold fit is, that the blood, after some struggle, brings to its own degree of heat, the liquids which mixed themselves with it; and being thus increased in quantity, must necessarily produce more heat in the body. The phlegmatic and bilious parts, attenuated by the fever, separate themselves from the mass, and through the pores of the skin, in the form of sweat, free the system from their admixture on the critical days.

C H A P. III.

System of the CRITICAL DAYS.

THE stomach is the great fountain which, if full, supplies the body with every thing ; but, if empty, draws to itself a part of the body's substance. There are four other *springs* which, after being drained of what they had received from the stomach, must also draw from the body : these are the heart, seat of the blood ; the head, seat of phlegm ; the spleen, seat of water ; and the liver, seat of the bile. All the diseases which are not owing to external violence, proceed from these four liquids, a certain proportion of which is contained in whatever we eat or drink. Hence the different effects of different aliments and liquors upon our health.

As

As soon as we have made a meal, the body draws from the stomach the liquid proper for its nourishment, and the four *springs* attract, by means of their veins, what is analogous to their nature, in the same manner as a plant derives from the earth a juice similar to its own. It is for want of containing this assimilating juice, that some soils cannot be brought to produce certain plants.

That the head is the natural seat of phlegm, may be proved from this humour's flowing abundantly into the mouth and nostrils, upon eating something acrid and pituitous, such as cheese. When this humour remains in the head in too great a quantity, it occasions great pain; when it falls in the stomach, and gets out of the body with the *faeces*, its presence is perceived by their looseness and copiousness.

An abundance of new bile forces the old to leave its seat; this, flowing into the stomach, produces violent pain, and pro-

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ceeding

ceeding to the intestines and bladder, (for this last part has many veins of communication with the stomach*) irritates and gripes them: but at last, getting out of the body by these emunctories, suffers nature to restore calm and ease.

In the same manner the spleen and heart being over-loaded with water and blood, from having eaten substances too favourable to the formation of these liquids, occasion various disturbances in the body.

These four different liquids have each of them an excretorial passage, viz. the

* Commentators, consistently with their custom, ought to have concluded from this passage, that Hippocrates was acquainted with the Lymphatic System, and its supposed retrograde motion. (See the ingenious pamphlet of the justly lamented *Mr. Darwin*). Some readers may, without any blameable partiality, attribute it to his having observed how quickly liquids are discharged, in some instances, by the bladder: and others will, perhaps with more probability, suppose that Hippocrates, understanding not the circuits of the *secundæ viæ*, might think a communication of the bladder with the stomach, as likely as with the kidneys.

mouth,

mouth, nostrils, bladder, and rectum; through which, as long as they are evacuated in a sufficient proportion, good order is preserved. Now it must be observed, that these liquids remain in their allotted places the day in which they are admitted. The second day, being obliged to move by the accession of a fresh quantity, they return into the stomach, where they contribute to the coction of its contents, and to the formation of blood. On the third day, having acquired by their residence a strong degree of fætor, they pass out of the body along with the fæces. Supposing then, that in consequence of an exuberance in some of these humours, the œconomy is a little deranged, it necessarily follows that, for two days, anxiety, heat, and fever, will be felt; but got rid of on the third day, by the evacuation of the morbid matter. It is as easily conceived that, from the cause of the complaint being somewhat greater, the

evacuation of the third day may not prove sufficient to remove it entirely; and, in that case, the decisive crisis must be postponed to the fifth, the seventh, the ninth, &c. according to its different degrees of intenseness. So far I have proved, that crises must happen on some of the odd days, since on those alone evacuations take place in a natural course; the body drawing, on even days, from the stomach, what is necessary for its use. But it does not from hence follow, that crises happening on odd days, are necessarily fortunate ones: on the contrary, patients are observed to be constantly worse on those days, on account of the agitation, which a tendency towards a decision, must necessarily produce; and it is evident, that if the day that the body is accustomed to derive its supplies from the stomach, this viscus should contain nothing fit to recruit its weakened state, the crisis must prove fatal on the day following: at the same time, if a crisis should take place on an even day, there is
a less

a less probability of its proving favourable, on account of the order of things being then inverted *.

Physicians used formerly to commit a fatal mistake, by purging their patients on odd days, many of which died of a superpurgation, if the dose was a strong one; whereas this accident never happens on even days, these being not intended by nature for evacuations.

* In another place (Sect. 7. p. 40.) he gives the following list of the critical days, which does not confirm the doctrine delivered in this. He there informs us, that if a crisis happens on any other day, it is a sign of death, or, at least, of a relapse.

Even C. D.—4, 6, 8, 10, 14, 28, 30, 48, 60, 80, 100.

Odd C. D.—3, 5, 7, 9, 11, 17, 21, 27, 31.

It is remarkable enough, that modern partisans of the doctrine of crises don't acknowledge this list of the critical days, to be the true one of Hippocrates, though it is taken from the first book of his *Epidemics*, which all authors look upon as genuine. He has, in some other places, carried the pretended power of odd numbers so far, as to pronounce the seventh month of children's lives, even their 7th and 14th years, to be critical for some diseases. (Aphor. 28. sect. 3.)

REMARKS on the CRITICAL DAYS.

OF the three preceding systems, I will select the last for the subject of a few remarks, as containing the foundation of a doctrine, which almost every medical writer, since Hippocrates, has endeavoured either to confirm, or to overturn. From the number of its advocates and opponents, I must decline the usual method of arguing by dint of authorities; because, how learned soever such a method may to some people appear, it is both unpleasant and uninstructional*. Quoting is not reasoning, and this question is not to be decided by votes: indeed few questions should, when there is another mode of solution; for it is absurd to level all understandings, and

* Any admirer of this sort of learning, is likely to be entertained with a chapter in the 6th book of *Freder. Hoffman, de Crisum Naturâ*.

pay all respect to the *quantity*, none to the *qualities*, or rather qualifications of the voters. However, this is spoken in the most general sense, without the least intention of illiberally reflecting on any one of those from whom I may differ.

It matters not for our present purpose, whether it was Hippocrates, or his son-in-law *Polybius*, as is the general opinion, that wrote this book. We know the doctrine of critical days to have been so far established among the ancients, as to have, in a great measure, regulated their practice; and here we mean to consider, 1st. The grounds and state of that doctrine among them: 2dly. Whether it has any foundation in nature: and, 3dly. Whether it ought to have any influence on our practice.

In order to simplify the first part of these enquiries, as much as it is susceptible of simplicity, it will be necessary to make great allowances for the introduction of

many spurious passages into the writings of Hippocrates. To the spuriousness of these passages, and the corruption of some others, we must attribute the critical power which some days are invested with in one place, and deprived of in another; also the shortness and length of time, to which crises are limited for their exertion according to one account, or extended according to another; but at the same time that, for the sake of good understanding, these differences are laid to the account of spurious and corrupted places; we must, in justice to our cause, observe the improbability of their having ever been so very wide, had a sufficient number of facts ascertained the truth of the doctrine, and made it generally known.—Let me be permitted to illustrate my meaning by a comparison:—Suppose that a manuscript treatise on the small-pox, written by a physician of reputation, should fall into the hands of an apothecary's young apprentice; who, with

with a view to receive a greater sum for it, should try his own pen, and add a few chapters to the book; would he, when speaking of the eruption, fix its time twenty days after the first sickness? or mention three weeks after the appearance of the pustules, as a common interval for their maturity? Would he, a fortnight after their exsiccation, caution us against the secondary fever? Or advise opening medicines a month after the fever has disappeared? No: whatever blunders he might commit, they could not be so far from the mark; because the common time for this succession of symptoms, though not immutably fixed by nature to an hour, or even a day, is, however, within a few days, tolerably well known to every body. For this reason, I think it more than probable, that the notions of Hippocrates and his cotemporaries, concerning crises, were very far from being settled. Some facts had been observed which gave rise to this opinion,

opinion, others were seen with partial eyes, and upon this basis arose the preceding theory. That it is ingenious, and false, is, I believe, equally obvious: but as an assertion is not a reason, and as the minutest parts of this controversy are apt, if neglected, to swell into volumes of arguments; I will desire the student to give it a moment's attention. This will enable him to perceive the singularity of the supposed facts upon which it rests; viz. the two first days of the foetus' existence elapsing without an evacuation; an evacuation taking place on the third day; and nature's maintaining that order through life, that is, constantly retaining aliments two days in the body, before their separated superfluous parts are let out. The two first of these three suppositions will, I am afraid, remain a mystery for our sons, as it certainly was to our forefathers. The third is so contrary to common experience, that it would be less pardonable, if possible, to

prove

prove its fallacy, than it was to admit it as a fact. But granting every one of them to be true, the theory would even then hardly be supportable; for, if the *ingesta* of the first day's existence free the body of their superfluous parts on the third day; if those of the second day are let out on the fourth; and those of the third, on the fifth, &c. it necessarily follows that, except the two first days of the embryo's conception, all the subsequent days of its life, whether in the womb or out of it, are equally intended by nature for evacuations. Consequently, physicians could not be to blame for purging on the odd days; nor could any superpurgation be owing to that cause; and as to the main point in question; viz. a fever's happening in consequence of too much food, and being relieved by a critical, that is, an increased evacuation on the third day, or on the fifth, seventh, ninth, &c. &c.; surely such a fever must be reckoned full as likley

to

to produce an increased evacuation on the fourth day, as on the fifth; on the sixth, as on the seventh; on the eighth, as on the ninth, &c. since all the days, after the third, are equally unconnected with the first; and since the evacuations happening on any one of them can no more, with consistency, be supposed to be influenced by the original cause, than those happening on any other.

But it may be replied, that if the theory is false, the facts are not; that these facts are unanswerable, and prove the existence of critical days beyond a doubt.—I should be unwilling to lead my reader through every Hippocratic page, as such a labour would be contradictory to the intention with which these sheets are written; therefore, referring him for a collection of these facts, to the *Methodus Medendi*, of *Dr. De Haen*, I will confine myself to observing, that many of these facts have been taken from the most apocryphal writings of Hippocrates:

hippocrates: that in the first book of Epidemics, a book universally ascribed to him, there are many instances of a non-critical termination; that it is not always easy precisely to determine the beginning of a disease; and that in all doubtful cases, human nature will imperceptibly bias our conjectures in favour of a pre-conceived opinion. For these reasons, I will venture to assert, that the doctrine of critical days, as delivered in Hippocrates, will not stand the test of an impartial examination.

Modern authors, sensible of the deficiencies of the theory which we have analysed, have intrenched themselves within the above supposed facts, and endeavoured to strengthen them by a more specious explanation. If I may judge of their sentiments, by my own, they will not accuse me of having selected a weak antagonist, when I name the illustrious professor *Cullen*, as the writer whose opinions I will chiefly consider in this second enquiry,

enquiry, viz. *Whether the doctrine of critical days has any foundation in nature.* Two reasons induce me to make choice of this gentleman: 1st. The speciousness of the argument he produces; speciousness so much resembling solidity, that in answering him, I shall think I am answering all the writers of the same party. 2^d. The great and extensive influence of his opinions; an influence acquired by the most shining abilities, and maintained by the most laudable perseverance in their exertion: an influence of all others the most natural, but which, in this respect, he will pardon me for endeavouring to lessen, since our object is in reality the same.

Having acquainted the reader with the frequent contradictions occurring in Hippocrates, concerning the days which are to be considered as critical, and delivered my sentiments on that head, I will not dwell upon the free manner with which *Dr. Cullen* passes over these difficulties, and
reduces

reduces the number of critical days to the eight following : 3d, 5th, 7th, 9th, 11th, 14th, 17th, 20th, but proceed to the examination of his doctrine. — “ I observe, “ says he, * that the animal œconomy is “ readily subjected to periodical movements, both from its own constitution, “ and from habits which are readily produced in it. 2dly. I observe periodical “ movements to take place in the diseases “ of the human body, with great constancy and exactness, as in the case of “ intermittent fevers, and many other “ diseases.” — The animal œconomy is certainly subjected from its constitution to periodical movements; but nothing can be more irregular than the periods of those movements, constitutionally considered: habit alone subjects the œconomy to a regular return of the same sensations, and habit may be different in every individual: consequently, the nature of animal consti-

* First lines of the Practice of Physic, p. 86.

tutions,

tutions, and the power of habit, being susceptible of a variety of combinations; no movement, generally and constantly, applicable to all individuals, can arise from this mixture of causes. There is also in this argument, a sort of abuse of words in extending the influence of habit to diseases: habits are formed in health, and depend, in a great measure, upon our will; they are left off, as well as contracted; therefore, can have no great connection with sickness. Besides, some crises, such as hemorrhages, profuse sweats, depositions of matter, &c. in many cases, have no relation either with the habits, or with the constitution.

From the universality of tertian or quartan periods in intermittent fevers, we cannot doubt of there being in the animal œconomy, a tendency to observe such periods and the critical days, above mentioned, are consistent with this tendency of the œconomy; as all of them mark either tertian or quartan periods.

“ periods. These periods, however, are
“ not promiscuously mixed; but occupy
“ constantly their several portions in the
“ progress of the disease: so that from
“ the beginning, to the 11th day, a ter-
“ tian period takes place; and from the
“ 11th, to the 20th, and perhaps longer,
“ a quartan period is as steadily observed.”

This paragraph brings to my recollection, the order in which Hippocrates places the critical days in his prognostics; viz. 4, 7; 11, 14; 17, 20: and so on to sixty or more. This order *Dr. Cullen*, with some alterations, has adopted as the true one; or rather as the most consonant with the tertian and quartan periods of intermittent fevers, upon which he lays the foundation of his doctrine. But I cannot omit mentioning here, that, for the sake of strengthening his favourite analogy, he deprives the fourth day of its critical attribute, though according to those very facts, which he considers as a solid basis, this

same fourth day, as he himself acknowledges, should be looked upon as the most critical of all. However, I readily grant the existence of this analogy; I acknowledge its force, and sensible application; and dispute no part of it, except the universality of its prevalence. Was this universality a fact, all the objections derived from the contradictory accounts of Hippocrates could avail nothing against this law of nature, how incomprehensible soever the cause. But since intermittent fevers assume the quotidian type, and its imitators the double tertian, and triple quartan, as well as a ternary, or a quartenary, recurrence: since there are many instances of a regular succession of septenary, octonary, and even annual, returns of paroxysms, for a long continuance *, can the tertian and quartan periods be said to be universal? Can any inference, drawn from this pretended uni-

* Miscellan. Curios. Ann. 4 et 5. p. 58. Plin. secund. lib. vii. cap. 51.

versality,

versality, have any weight? Is it not, on the contrary, rational to conclude, from this manner of arguing, that nature is inclined, in some cases, to a critical struggle every day; in others, every third, fourth, seventh, or eighth day? And that consequently her operations in intermittents, so far from explaining the order commonly ascribed to critical days in continued fevers, shew in these, by analogy, a tendency to a daily decision?

Dr. Cullen adds his own observations in support of his opinion.† What he says he has seen, I believe implicitly: because no body is more candid, no-body more accurate, than the respectable professor. But even his observations establish nothing positive in favour of the cause he maintains: they are confined to the termination of two species of fevers on some of his critical days; and as such a termination consists, according to his own expression, in *some*

† P. 97.

return of sleep and appetite, with an abatement of the frequency of the pulse, without any decisive crisis : it appears that one might, with as much propriety, say, that the disorder is moderated, as that it is terminated, and that consequently there would be no great error in postponing one or two days longer the date of the patient's recovery. This train of reasoning, leads very naturally to the following reflection : that, if there is in nature a real foundation for the doctrine of critical days, it is not a little strange that the partisans of this doctrine should, after an interval of more than two thousand years, be still obliged to derive their principal arguments from the uncertain observations of its first author.*

If there is no foundation in nature for the doctrine of critical days, it is very unnecessary to enquire, whether such a doctrine ought to influence our practice : but as ancient

* Κρισις εστιν απολυσις νοσου, Hipp. *a crisis is the termination of the disease.*

notions are apt to maintain their seat in some minds, it may not be superfluous to remark: that a careful observation of crises, and a reliance upon their effects, imply *inactivity* in the physician: and that few patients would send for a man who professed to remain a neutral spectator of nature's struggles with diseases.

As to what has been said in this necessarily-long article, I have not so much aimed at exhausting the subject, as at answering the arguments of the other side. Some more positive proofs of nature's uncertainty, as to the days of her operation, might be deduced from the history of eruptive fevers, between which and critical appearances, the fairest analogy must be acknowledged to subsist. Whatever may be thought of this discussion, the motive that has produced it, is not a reprehensible one. I have endeavoured to set, in a clear point of view, a system involved in obscurities; and to awaken, in

young unprejudiced minds, a desire of using their own reason upon a subject, which too much veneration for ancient authorities has often prevented them from investigating; in one word, I have endeavoured, from my own persuasion of the whole system of crises being erroneous and fanciful, to persuade others of its instability; but in such a manner, as to leave them and myself always disposed to receive other impressions. *Si quid rectius istis, &c.*

C H A P. IV.

Of the DIET of Healthy People.

ALL animals, man himself, and the spirit* which animates him, are composed of *fire* and *water*: two elements naturally opposite to each other; but made to agree, and rendered equally useful in this combination. Thus united, they are sufficient for every purpose of the animal œconomy) and for their own preservation; but each of them without the other's assistance could effectuate nothing, not even support itself. Fire is endoweed with the power of motion, water with that of nourishment. Either may happen to predominate, but never can destroy the other;

* *Ψυχῆ*, the soul.

for instance, should fire rush upon the last drop of water, it must at that instant fail for want of nourishment ; and water, running towards the last sparkle of fire, must find itself deprived of motion ; consequently their co-existence is absolutely necessary. Heat and dryness belong to fire ; cold and humidity to water ; but they mutually participate of each other's qualities. Therefore, fire derives from water some degree of humidity, and water from fire some degree of dryness. By this participation, they both are enabled to convert into their own nature animal and vegetable substances, though ever so different in appearance ; and from this assimilation arise various new combinations.— Thus the form and shape of things are perpetually altering, but nothing is in reality destroyed, nor is any thing new created. Men confiding in their sight, rather than in their reason, annex to the words *birth* and *death*, ideas of creation, and annihilation ; whereas all
changes

changes of this kind are produced by an aggregation, or a separation of constitutive parts. An animal is not new-created, nor can he be annihilated, unless in a general annihilation of things: he is only a new *mixture*, whose parts in time increase, and in time decaying, contribute to the formation of other compounds*. An universal law is regularly observed in these operations, viz. an homogeneity of parts; without it, there is no consistence; and indeed particles cannot long remain in a place which is not fit for them; they must remove, and wander till they meet with more similarity; for this reason the spirit of man cannot acquire strength but in man alone.

Since all nourishing substances contain a portion of fire and water, and since, beside nourishment, exercise is also necessary to

* Does it appear that Hippocrates separated the study of physic from that of philosophy?

health;

health ; it follows, that our directions for preventing diseases should be taken from a knowledge of the different sorts of aliments ; an attention to their quantity ; and from an observation of the properest degrees of fatigue : but even then we cannot, for many reasons, flatter ourselves with the hope of carrying this branch of the medical art to any great exactness. The difference of constitutions, (a difference, it is true, generally established upon the two principles of dryness and humidity alone, but susceptible of infinite modifications) the difference of age and sex, of climates, situations of places, seasons, and weather, are so many unremoveable causes of the conjectural nature of this art. In fact, was it possible to ascertain precisely a true point in the quality and quantity of food, and in the exercises of every individual, one might boast of having found out a secret for perpetuating the health of men. This subject has been treated by several writers,

writers, but not one seems to me to have considered it as it should be. They all have enquired into some part or other: none have embraced the whole. However, they are not to be blamed because their works are incomplete, but deserve to be praised for what they have done. I am the first who, from observing the manner of living, have invented the art of foreseeing diseases. A man does not lose his health all at once, it requires some time before the wholesome parts are overcome by the morbid ones. This I have observed and learned from it, whether the food is too great for the exercise; or the exercise too violent for the food; or whether they both are in a just proportion: also what diseases happen from errors of this sort, and how to cure them. In the same manner, those who profess the art of divination are enabled, from what is manifest, to pry into what is obscure; and from the present,

sent, to know futurity *. This, and all other human arts and sciences, proceed originally from our seven senses. We judge of sounds by the ear, of objects by the eyes, of odours by the nose : the tongue distinguishes what is grateful, from what is not : all the body feels the different effects of heat and cold ; the mouth forms the speech ; and we draw in breath or let it out. From these, I say, come all human arts, every one of which has some resemblance with the animal œconomy †.

I have demonstrated the impossibility of delivering certain and exact rules concerning the manner of living ; therefore, what I am going to say, has only that degree of

* *Viri cum muliere congressus facit ut ex re manifestâ obscura cognoscatur ; quod sic puer futurus est. Sect. 10. p. 11.*

† The arts of farriers, taylorers, wood-sawyers, fullers, &c. are compared, in different parts of these treatises, to some of nature's operations in the body, if not with justness, at least, always with ingenuity.

exactness,

exactness, which the nature of the subject admits of. In winter it is salutary to eat a great deal, and drink but little. Wine is the best liquor: bread and roasted meat the best food. As to vegetables, one should eat them very sparingly. This diet will keep the body warm and dry. Towards the spring we should increase and dilute our liquor, lessen the quantity of food, and make it softer by boiling, instead of roasting it; and substituting *maza* to bread*. Summer, which heats and fouls the body, requires a different mode of living, in order to oppose its natural tendency, and preserve a moist and cool state; therefore, soft *maza*, copious and diluted drinks, with boiled meat, ought to be the plan. On the contrary, we should in autumn take more nourishment, and of a drier sort; drink less, but of stronger liquors: in short, regulate our diet in such a manner, as to be proof against the coldness and hu-

* *Bread* is made with wheat, *maza* with barley.

midity which distinguish that season. It is also to be observed, that I don't mean this method should be strictly followed, from the first day of one season to the first of another, but imitate, in its transitions, the gradations of the seasons themselves. Other circumstances require also much attention: for instance, persons of a lax, corpulent habit, and a red complexion, should, the greatest part of the year, live upon dry food, since their constitution is watery: as thin, finewy people, of a black cast, ought to adopt a moister kind of diet. In general, it is useful for young people to have a soft moist nourishment: for old ones, a dryer sort. Thus all these general regulations should be made to vary according to particular circumstances, keeping always this great point in view, to moderate the natural effects of seasons, and the tendency of the constitution.

Such

Such is the power of diet, that it may be brought to answer the most difficult purposes. Parents may, with its assistance, have children of either sex : for fire being known to prevail in the constitution of males, and water in that of females, a man and his wife, by living on substances of one of these two classes, must have children of the corresponding sex.

During the six cold months, emetics ought to be given, because more phlegm is formed during this time, than in hot weather : and the head, as well as the parts above the diaphragm, are more liable to be disordered : but in summer, opening infusions are adviseable, on account of the many complaints which arise from too much bile. The body requires cooling at that time ; and the parts which are swollen, ought by that means to be depressed. Different preparations are given to different constitutions ; saline infusions to corpulent people ; unctuous ones to persons

persons of a thin habit. These may be made up with milk, the liquor of boiled peas *, and other substances of the same kind. The others are prepared with salts, sea water, &c. The same difference is observed in administering emetics, which, for persons of the first class, ought to consist of four or five ounces of *hyssop* boiled in a gallon of water, with some vinegar or salt, to render it more palatable : and be drank, at first in small quantities, then largely and faster : the best time is about twelve o'clock at noon, before breakfast, immediately after having ran, or at least walked very fast. People of a thinner and less strong constitution, should first be put into a warm-bath, drink a little wine after, then take some nourishment, and after

* *Kai apo speβivδov vδwp eφδov, aqua elixa cicerum,* which *Forsius*, in too vague a manner, translates *decoctum ciborum.*—Sect. iv. p. 4.

staying some time †; swallow a mixture of three different wines, viz. austere, sweet, and acid; beginning by long intervals, and afterwards taking successively many large draughts, having previously diluted the mixture.

When aliments and exercise cease to preserve that proportion, upon which we have said that health depends, the following symptoms will enable us to judge which of the two exceeds the other. A man after supper feels a sort of distention in his nostrils, without being able to account for it. They seem to be full, but contain nothing. Next morning, after having walked a little while, there is a discharge from the nose and mouth. In course of time the eye-lids grow heavy, sometimes

† His expression in this place is remarkable; *sexaginta stadia distans*, as long as it would take to go ten stadia, that is; about a mile and a quarter. By a mistake of the press, the Latin has *quatuor* instead of *decem*.
Sect. iv. p. 5.

long and pleasant slumbers creep on, even in the day-time; but afterwards become agitated and disturbed by dreams of battles. These visions disappear by addressing prayers to the Gods*: an itching is felt on the forehead, appetite fails, the colour vanishes from the face, and defluxions or fevers, accompanied with horror, follow. At this period, the patient is apt to attribute his complaint to something or other which he has lately done; whereas it really proceeds from a repletion, occasioned by a predominance of food over exercise. The mucus and saliva are certain proofs of repletion; they don't run out when the body is at rest, because their emunctories are obstructed by the air; but as soon as they are attenuated by the heat which exercise occasions, they are abundantly discharged. It becomes a physician to know the nature of this disorder from the first appearance of its signs, and to oppose its

* De insomniis, *Secl.* iv, p. 45.

progress

progress early. With that view, when the patient has taken his usual exercise, but without fatiguing himself, and is come out of a warm bath, he should have all sorts of food offered him, and be made to vomit; after this operation, he must gargle his throat and mouth with astringent wine, in order to constrict the mouths of the veins, and prevent a laceration, which often is the consequence of emetics. A sparing diet and moderate exercise, are afterwards to be for some time observed. But if this method is not sufficiently powerful, emetics must be repeated. — Such are the principles of the diet which, with the assistance of the Gods, I have invented, with credit to myself, and benefit to others, and which I value above every thing else.

prognosis early. With that view, when the patient has taken his usual exercise, but without any other thing, and is come out of a warm bath, he should have all sorts of food offered him, and be made to eat of it.

Of Diet in Acute Diseases.

THE authors of the *Cnidian Sentences* have faithfully recorded the symptoms of every disease, and the order in which they appear; a task which might have been equally well performed without any knowledge of physic, since it consists only in setting down the account which the patients give of themselves*. In other respects, those sentences are deficient. We learn nothing from them concerning the prognostic, or the method of cure. Those ancient physicians are also to blame for not employing more remedies than they

* This may very justly be said also of his manner of writing the *Epidemics*.

did, but especially, for not having written any thing worth mentioning on so essential an article as diet. They were, however, acquainted with the various kinds of diseases, and their manifold divisions: but they have not succeeded in attempting an enumeration of every species. In fact, it is a difficult matter to do this, if a trifling difference in the symptoms is reckoned a sufficient reason for constituting a special distinction*.

The diet in diseases, about which the *ancients* have neglected delivering rules, is, at this day, a matter of dispute among us; some constantly direct their patients to take the ptisan, without filtering it†; others, on the contrary, maintain that it is very detrimental to swallow the barley; and that its juice alone ought to be given.

* How applicable is this passage to some systems; to that of the learned *Sauvages* particularly!

† *Ptisan* was nearly the same thing as our barley-water, but most likely made thicker. When it was strained, they called it *cream*.

Some will give neither of these preparations before the seventh day; others, before a critical decision of the disorder. This difference of opinions, does no credit to the profession; it leads people to think that physic is an art, still more conjectural than divination; since its professors agree less among themselves. For my part, I think the ptisan the best of all farinaceous decoctions in acute diseases: it is soft and smooth, moderately moistening, causes no thirst, washes off what ought to be carried away; neither binds the belly, nor loosens it too much; and having, in boiling, swelled as much as it is susceptible, cannot occasion any swelling in the abdomen. It ought to be given twice every day, especially to those who have been accustomed to two meals; increasing, by degrees, its dose and consistence. As to the idea that the barley itself may do harm, it is erroneous; for the slipperiness of the ptisan prevents its adhering any where. In many cases,

cases, in pleurifies especially, we must dilute the ptisan; for, if given by itself, it hastens the fate of patients.

It is the practice of some physicians, to order a severe abstinence from all food, at the beginning of a disease, and after a few days, to give it so freely, as to occasion a great change in the body; but this is a pernicious method. People in health, who have been accustomed to one meal a day only, if they make two, always find some inconvenience from it: or if, having usually made two or three every day, they happen to make only one, feel also some indisposition: therefore, since these sudden changes have a bad effect in health, why should we suppose that they may have a good one in sickness? Is it not more rational to derive our regulations in the latter case, from what we observe in the former? During the whole course of the disorder, it is useful to give honey and water, and now and then wine. We must remark,

that sweet red wine is more powerful than the white for promoting expectoration, provided it brings on no thirst: the white is the best for exciting a flow of urine: this diuretic quality renders it very serviceable in acute complaints. These are useful observations, and which the ancients had not made. When a violent head-ach, or a delirium, supervenes, wine must be entirely laid aside, and water substituted in its place; or, at most, a watery sort of white wine: observing to give some water after it. There are other drinks often prescribed in these disorders, some are prepared from green plants, as grapes, and the berries of myrtle; others from wheat and dried grapes, &c.

Bathing is of use in the greatest part of illnesses: in some, however, more than in others; as in inflammation of the lungs, more than in ardent fevers: it remarkably relieves pains in the breast, side, and back; forwards expectoration, takes off sensations
of

of weariness, relaxes the skin, cures the head-ach, and proves diuretic. But it is improper when the bowels are either too much relaxed, or bound; when the strength is impaired, or when the stomach is so disordered as to occasion retchings, and acid eructations. It is also to be prohibited, when blood runs from the nose, unless circumstances should render such an hemorrhage a desirable event. In general, patients taking the whole ptisan, may more safely bathe, than those who only drink its juice, either pure or diluted. The first may bathe twice a day, if they like it.

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head-ach, and proves diuretic. But it is
improper when the bowels are either too
much relaxed, or bound; when the
strength is impaired, or when the sto-

CHAP. VI. **Of AIR, WATERS, and PLACES.**

WHOEVER is desirous of prosecuting his medical studies upon a right plan, must pay a great deal of attention to the different seasons of the year, and their respective influence. He should observe the general effects of hot and cold winds, and their particular influence on some countries. He should also study the nature of springs, for waters differ in qualities, as well as in taste and weight. These branches of knowledge, with some attention to the aspect of places, and the diet of their inhabitants, will enable him, though a stranger in other respects, to foresee the diseases to which they are chiefly subject; and to treat them properly:

an

an advantage, which a person, unacquainted with these circumstances, could not possibly have. Astronomy is also connected with the Medical Art; for a knowledge of the times at which constellations rise and disappear, enables to foresee the future state of the year, and consequently the changes which take place in the animal œconomy, since the one follows the other in its alterations.

A town exposed to hot winds, I mean to those which blow from any point between the rising and setting of the sun in winter, and at the same time sheltered towards the north, has great plenty of saltish waters, which, springing from high places, must be warm in summer, and cold in winter. Women in such a place, are subject to weakneses of the viscera, frequent abortions, and sterility: children to convulsions and a spasmodic respiration, which is reckoned epileptic: then to pains in the bowels, diarrhœas, obstinate fevers in winter,

ter, eruptions of pustules in the night, and the piles. The people are besides liable to a blearedness of eyes, and to defluencies from the brain, which, after their 50th year, frequently deprives them of the use of their limbs.

Cities open to the winds which blow from between the two points of sun-rise and sun-set in summer*, with a shelter from the south, contain waters which are hard† and cold, with some sweetness of taste. In these places, men are robust and sinewy. Their bowels are difficult to

* This distinction of the rising and setting of the sun in winter, and in summer; with a shelter from the north in the first, and from the south in the second; makes the latter aspect undoubtedly much colder than the former, since the line which the sun appears to describe here, extends itself much more northward from both its ends.

† Σκληρα, *hard and dry*.—Notwithstanding the following word *cold*, he probably means, according to his theory, that they contain a great proportion of

move;

move; and bile predominates over phlegm. Inflammatory complaints are frequent, especially pleurifies: vessels are apt to break, and matter forms itself inwardly: here the blearedness of eyes runs to such a height, as to occasion a rupture of the parts. Hemorrhages from the nose happen after the age of thirty; and epilepsies, though not frequent, are of an extreme violence. Women have their menstrual purgations too sparingly; they bring forth with great labour, and are not able to suckle their children; the hardness and crudities of those waters being unfavourable to the secretion of milk. After lying-in, they frequently fall into a consumption. Children whilst very young, are subject to a hydrocele of the testicles,* which in

* Custom seems to have confined the word *hydrocele* to watery swellings of the testicles. From which the expression, *hydrocele of the testicles*, is a sort of pleonasm: but though, in general, it is right to comply with customs, there is no harm in remembering now and then their absurdities.

time disappears. The signs of puberty shew themselves late in these places.

An eastern aspect is preferable to the two preceding situations. The temperature is milder, and the waters are lymphid, fragrant and soft. The people here have a better complexion, and a more animated countenance; their voice is harmonious, and their understanding strong. Women are remarkable for fecundity and safety of delivery. Here diseases assume the same character as in warm places: but are much less frequent and less dangerous. As to places facing the west, and shut up from other aspects, they are necessarily unhealthy; the sun never shining upon them, but when arrived at a great height, gives the people a sickly look, a weak constitution, an unpleasing tone of voice, and a disposition to many diseases. Such are the effects of winds, all of which, by their nature, impregnate animals and things, with cold and humidity, because they all arise from
from

from ice, snow, rivers, and lakes ;* in which there is, and in all other parts also, as well as in animated bodies, a certain share of this *spirit*, but some of which, owing to particular circumstances, occasion very different sensations from the others. The south and north winds, for example, set out from places equally cold and wet; and equally retain those qualities for a certain extent: but receiving in their progress the influence of the climates in which they glide, must necessarily become different. The first, in its passage through the meridian, is impregnated with so much heat, that it is enabled to communicate it, more or less, to the countries situated beyond, according to their respective distances. Whereas the second must spread over those same countries a share of the cold particles with which it is replete: till having also passed the equator, it diffuses over the

* De Vict. Rat. Sect. iv, p. 21.

countries on that side of the line, the same sensations that the south-wind causes among us. Concerning the different sorts of waters, a man in health may, perhaps, indistinctly drink of them all; but if obliged by illness to be attentive in his choice, he must, if of a costive and inflammatory habit, confine himself to those that are light, soft, and limpid: or if of a relaxed and pituitous constitution, select those of a harder and more salted nature. None are so light, so sweet, and so limpid, as those collected from rain; for the sun attracts and elevates only the thinnest parts of liquid, as may be proved from the deposition of salt in sea water, and the evaporation of the aqueous parts: or from what happens to a man who either walks or sits whilst the sun is shining; for let the heat be ever so great, no drops of sweat appear on those parts of his body which are exposed to its rays, because they are constantly sucked up: but under his
clothes

clothes they are collected and preserved, and upon coming to a shady place ooze out equally over all the body. Rain water putrefies sooner than any other, on account of its being composed of so many different parts. Some of them thick and black, contribute to the formation of air and clouds, which wander on high, till collected by the winds into one mass, they fall again on the earth in the shape of rain. Others more thin and light, burnt or boiled by the sun, acquire from this heat, as all liquors do by coction, a degree of sweetness. It is therefore rational to believe, that this water is the best when boiled and filtered. Without this caution, it soon exhales a bad smell, and gives to the voice a disagreeable tone; as those are the worst which are extracted from either snow or ice, because they consist of coarse and heavy particles. The truth of this last assertion is made evident, by getting a measured quantity of water to freeze;

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for

for upon measuring it again after it is melted, it shall be found considerably less, which is a proof that its best and thinnest parts are evaporated. From this experiment, I pronounce those waters the worst of all, and am of opinion, that waters having been once congealed, never can return to their primitive state.

A rainy autumn; a winter, neither very mild, nor too cold; with seasonable rains in the spring, and summer; constitute a healthy year. But if the winter is cold and dry, and the spring hot and pluvius, dysenteries, fevers, and sore eyes will prevail in summer. Should some rain and cold weather happen towards the beginning of the cold days, one might expect a better autumn: if not, women and children run a great danger; and those among them who survive, are often seized with quartans, and afterwards with dropfies.

A hot pluvius winter, followed by a cold windy spring, brings about abortions,

bad

bad times in child-bed, lingering recoveries, and diseases of infants; whilst old men are attacked with defluxions and palsies of the right side. Should the summer and autumn prove hot and rainy, the following winter must necessarily be dangerous to persons abounding with phlegm, and turned of forty; as it must occasion peripneumonies and pleurifies to bilious people. When the summer is cold and dry, with a hot pluvius autumn, pains in the head, *sphacelated brains* *, hoarsenesses, catarrhs, coughs, and some consumptions, appear at the approach of winter. A dry cold autumn, proves beneficial to women and pituitous constitutions, but extremely unfavourable to bilious habits.

A physician, to whom these important objects are become familiar by contempla-

* Σφακελούς τῶ ἐγκεφαλοῦ. Galen observes (see Van Swieten, vol. I. p. 736.) that the word *Sphacelus* has a various and doubtful signification in the writings of the ancients; being sometimes employed to express a violent pain in the head; sometimes a mortification.

tion, will be able to foresee many consequences of the alterations of weather. He must be careful, on a change of seasons, not to administer a purgative, nor burn or cut the abdomen, till ten days, at least, are elapsed. Above all things, let him be aware of the two solstices, the summer one especially. The two equinoxes are also thought very dangerous, especially the autumnal. His attention ought to be greater than commonly at the rising of constellations, and at the setting of the Bear and Pleiades, for those days are remarkably critical; some diseases proving then mortal, others terminating happily; all of them assuming a different form and character. The influence of seasons and climates is not limited to the morbid affections of men, but shews itself also in their frame of mind and body, as well as in all natural productions. In Asia, for example, there is in men and things a degree of beauty and perfection superior, in my opinion, to what we ob-

serve in Europe. The people are not only finer and taller in that country, but their manners are also more gentle, and more humane: they have a manly spirit, which renders them equally remarkable for patience in adversity, and boldness in their undertakings. They differ, it is true, in different parts, because the climate is different; and if the martial ardor, which distinguishes the Europeans, is not so generally conspicuous among them, the state of servitude, in which the greatest part of them are entangled by their kings, will sufficiently account for this inferiority:—who can, indeed, chearfully run into dangers, knowing that his courage can never mend his condition; but will only serve to enrich and aggrandize an ungrateful master? Who can with fortitude leave his wife and children, knowing that toils and wounds will be the only reward of such a sacrifice? The warlike genius of these Asiatics, whether Greeks, or Barbarians,

who live in liberty, sufficiently shews that the spirit of that nation is naturally martial, but that the noblest dispositions may be checked and perverted by a wretched government.

In Europe, as in Asia, the inhabitants of one part differ from those of another, according to the diversity of climates. That nation especially that lives near the *Palus Mæotis*, and form a part of *Scythia*, under the name of *Sauromatæ*, is very different from the rest: their maids are taught to ride on horseback, to make use of the bow, to lanch a javelin in riding, and to encounter enemies in battle. While infants, their mothers destroy their right breast with an iron heated to whiteness, that more nourishment may be conveyed to the shoulder and arm, and increase the strength of those parts. They preserve their virginity till they have killed three foes, and performed the religious rites established among them: but once married,

they cease to practise military exercises, unless called to action by the common danger.

Another nation of *Scythia*, called *Nomades*, from their having no houses *, live very differently from the *Sauromatæ*. They ramble over that immense country; the *Scythian Desert*, driving before them horses, oxen, and sheep, and stay no longer in one place, than they find provisions for their numerous cattle. The women travel in vehicles, drawn by four oxen, who, from the cold of the country, have no horns; and the men go on horseback. During the whole year, their food is the same, viz. meat; and their drink, the milk of mares, or water got from ice and snow. The cold of that climate destroys the natural whiteness of the skin, and gives it a reddish hue. They breathe a thick foggy air, and use no sort of bodily or mental exercise: for which reasons,

* More literally from their being shepherds. *Νομῆς*, pasture; *νομαδικὸς βίος*, a pastoral life.

they are all of a gross, loose, corpulent habit, with the same inexpressive features, or want of physiognomy: which circumstance, makes the individuals of one sex look all alike. Among them population is slow, many of their women being steril, and the men generally little addicted to venery; indeed, the greater part of them are eunuchs*: they speak and act like women, and employ themselves in the same occupations. Those afflicted with this impotency, are held in great veneration by the rest, who suppose, that such a misfortune is sent by the Gods, and dread for themselves the same visitation. For my part, I do not apprehend the Gods have more to do with one disorder than with

* *Ευνοχίας*, from *ευνν*, a bed; *ἔχω*, I keep. Literally, the name of those, whether castrates or not, who were intrusted with the office of watching over the chastity of women. Signifying also those who, from accident, disease, &c. had lost their virility; in which sense it is here employed.

another.

another. They all may be said to come from them, because they regulate every thing; but otherwise, they are effects of natural causes, and may be explained accordingly. Was this complaint a more immediate mark of Divine displeasure, why should it so much prevail among the rich, who honour the Deities by costly sacrifices and expensive presents; and so little among the poorer sort, who have it not in their power to be so generous? Let us look to their manner of living, and we shall there find the cause of this disease, and the reason of its invading chiefly the richer class of people. These are subject, from being constantly on horseback with their feet hanging down, to defluxions on the legs, which bring on a lameness. Their common method is then to open the veins that run behind the ears; and as these veins are essentially necessary to generation, they become, of course, impotent, after this operation. It may be added, that
riding

riding so much, and wearing breeches, which keep those parts cold and numb*, must in time lessen their irritability. Now it appears, why the lower class of people, who, for want of horses, are obliged to walk, live much freer from this humiliating malady.

* *Ὅστις μὴτε χεῖρι ἀπτεσθαι τὴν αἰδοῖον*, ut ne quidem manu attrectare pudenda liceat. *Sec. iii. p. 76.*

REMARKS on DIET, &c.

THERE are undoubtedly many ingenious observations in the three preceding chapters, which, though not always connected with the subject, nor always just, shew, however, a considerable knowledge of nature, very comprehensive views, and a liberal manner of thinking. These writings alone sufficiently prove, that so far from having separated medicine from philosophy, he cultivated both with great diligence. His opinions, concerning the cause of the different effects of winds, would not disgrace a Newton; nor would his ideas of government seem misplaced in the writings of Locke. If, in endeavouring to account for the different genius of nations, he ascribed too much to the influence of climates; the number of those who have fallen into the
same

same error, will, perhaps, appear a sufficient excuse: or it will not, at least, be denied, that an error which the illustrious *Montesquieu* committed, ought to be overlooked in *Hippocrates*. No *Hume* had then remarked, that the same people, living in the same places, had, at different times, a quite different character and turn of mind, according to the nature of their political constitution. Therefore, instead of censuring him on this head, we will not hesitate to conjecture, that had he lived in our days, he would not, like some moderns, have filled up a number of sheets on this obsolete subject.

As to the rules which he delivers concerning the diet of healthy people, tho' they were all as true as he believed them, it still would be superfluous to bestow much time in explaining their use, or enforcing their practice. It is not from ignorance that we commit pernicious excesses, but from the strength of our passions, and the weakness of

of our reason : a complicated cause, which personal experience alone, not precepts, has the power of preponderating. Every body knows the salutary effects of sobriety, regular hours, and moderate exercise ; but a citizen at a banquet, a young woman at a masquerade, and a scholar in his study, equally disdain thoughts of this kind ; till apoplexies, consumption, and the gout, have marked them for an example, unavailing to others. Thus, by a remarkable fatality, we neglect the assistance of the Art, when it would be serviceable ; and never fail to implore it, when it can have no effect.

His principles for the dietic management of the sick, are so general and so vague, that the young practitioner must apply somewhere else for proper instructions on this point. His regimen does not seem to have been strict enough in acute fevers, nor is he sufficiently explicit (tho' prolix enough) in other complaints, to enable us to form a judgment of his practice

tice in this respect. It is not, in my apprehension, an arduous part of our profession to inform oneself of these particulars; but whoever is desirous of perusing some sensible observations on this subject, made by a celebrated admirer of Hippocrates, may, with advantage, consult the works of *Dr. De Haen*.

A French author*, speaking of his treatise on Air, Waters, and Places, has the following words: "'Tis a master-piece of the Art which contains, I will not say the foundation of physic, but a degree of perfection, almost equal to that of our times." If, instead of attributing to the power of *aspects*, many effects and accidents little subjected to their influence, Hippocrates had, like *Dr. Hales*, and *Dr. Priestley*, ascertained the properties of air, by a numberless series of ingenious experiments: if, instead of asserting at random,

* Mr. Diderot, in the Preface of his Translation of *Dr. James's Dictionary*.

that rain-water, though the purest of all, putrefies sooner than any; that snow-water is the very worst sort, &c. &c. he had, like *Mr. Marggraf* †, and the illustrious *Dr. Heberden*, or the ingenious *Dr. Percival*, found out the sameness of these two kinds, constated their superior purity, and instructed the public on a number of interesting particulars, I wonder what eulogic expressions *Mr. Diderot* would then have employed? I believe I shall have occasion to mention again this declamatory gentleman, and the honour he does our Art, by modestly erecting himself judge of it's founder's merit, without having ever learned its first rudiments; therefore, will defer to another opportunity, the pleasure of entertaining my reader with more samples of his judicious eloquence.

† *Histoir. de l'Academ. de Berlin*, Ann. 1752.

C H A P. VII.

Of DISEASES.

WHEN *phlegm* falls from the head upon the lungs *, or when the lungs attract phlegm from all the parts of the body, especially the head, they become irritated and ulcerated by its adherence and putrefaction. All the body grows hot, and patients spit a good deal of this thickened and putrescent phlegm. One and twenty days convert phlegm into matter: one may perceive its motion and fluctua-

* I have not prefixed any name to this disease, because it has none in the text. Those which are inserted in the margin, in the sequel of this and the following chapter, are taken from Hippocrates. His arrangement I could not well follow, as I have not confined myself to the books *De Morbis*.

tion

tion in the sides. If at that state of the disease, the operation of empyema is performed, or the back is burnt, they commonly recover: but if it is put off so long as to suffer the phlegm to fall upon the bowels, and occasion a colliquation, all hopes are over. It is not possible to fix the time of this event, some lingering a long while, others perishing very soon. Concerning the prognostic in these cases; the sex, constitution, time of life, and of the year, are to be much considered: in general, young persons are oftener and more violently attacked than old ones.

Matter is also formed in the lungs, from the rupture of some small vessels: the patient spits out a part of the blood, but some remains extravasated, and putrefies. This illness, taken in time, may be cured; neglected, proves fatal. The veins of the head ought to be *relaxed*, and such a diet prescribed, as is likely to render the patient thin, and leave him little blood. Some-

M

times

times the veins of the lungs do not break entirely, but only become varicose; such a dilatation may be made to subside, by proper and early management.

Peripneumony and Pleurisy.—There is an inflammation of the lungs, and a pleurisy, in which no expectoration takes place. Dryness is the cause of both; and dryness is occasioned in warm and cold liquids, by too great a degree either of warmth or cold. The side becomes hard and painful by the heat of the bile and phlegm: we must, in this case, open in the arm *the vein of the spleen*, as it is called, or *that of the liver* *; for by this means, a part of the phlegm, bile, and bad blood, which they contain, is let out; a part diffused all over the body by the help of medicines and diluting liquors; and afterwards expelled by the assistance of warm sudorific reme-

* ἡ σπληνικὴ καλεομένη, ἢ ἡ ηπατικὴ: the *medi-*
an, or the *basilic*. It would have been more consistent
with his theory to have advised opening the *cephalic*.

dies. In pleurifies, when the morbid humours, which are fixed to the side and grown putrescent, are spit out, patients recover : but if, on account of their quantity, or of a recent afflux, expectoration proves insufficient ; they either die soon, or matter forms itself. In this case, some perish, others escape ; these different issues of the disorder are determined within fourteen days.

With a view to loosen the *pus* in the chest, it is adviseable to give the root of *arum*, one grain of salt, and some honey ; then to shake the shoulder. If, notwithstanding this remedy, the patient is not enabled to expectorate, one must give him acrid food with horse-radish, and the flower of brass ; administering fumigations at the same time. When he spits freely, his food ought to be very salt, and fat ; such as butter, and resin melted in honey. The seeds of nettle, the *origanum*, and *frankincense*, are also then recommendable.

The lungs having become excessively dry from the heat of the weather, from fevers, or from too great fatigue, are apt to be seized with an erysipelas.

Tubercles form themselves in the lungs and sides, from phlegm or bile.

Tabes Dorsalis.—In this disease, which chiefly attacks new-married persons, one must vomit and purge a good deal; then give cow-milk during forty days, prohibiting all other sorts of food. After this course of milk diet, aliments of easy digestion may be given, and their solidity gradually increased.

Angina.—The cause of an angina is a copious defluxion of phlegm from the head, upon the parts round the neck and jaw. The patient cannot swallow his saliva; with great difficulty he breathes; he constantly snores, and sometimes is feverish: the uva is inflamed, draws, by means of its heat, the blood of the adjacent veins, and communicates inflammation to the

the parts round it. In the beginning it hangs lower down than usual, but afterwards looks thick and black from the blood it has attracted. The seat of this disease is sometimes also nearer the breast. As to the swelling of the tonsils, gums, and tongue, it is the effect of the phlegm which fills them. In this complaint, the head is to be shaved, cupping glasses applied to the first vertebra of the neck, and near the ears; and the vapours of a mixture, composed of vinegar, nitre, origanum, and the seeds of nasturtium, ought to be drawn in through a tube. But the disease is mortal: very few recover, and unless the turgescient uva be opened, they commonly expire in struggling for breath.

Leipyria.—In this fever the heat of the skin feels moderate to the hand; but the patient complains of burning inwardly. The tongue is rough, and the air which the mouth and nostrils exhale, is hot. On the fifth day, the præcordia get hard and

M 3

painful,

painful, the complexion is very much the same as in the icterus, and the urine is thick and bilious. Should the patient on the seventh day be seized with a rigor and high fever, followed by a sweat, there are great hopes of his recovery. If this does not happen, he dies on the seventh, or ninth day. The treatment consists in frequent warm fomentations; in giving a large quantity of a beverage, made up of water and honey; in nourishing with the cold ingredients of the ptisan; giving afterwards some wine and water, and after the removal of the complaint, administering some opening medicine.

Phrenitis.—Phrensy is a delirium accompanied with fever. It happens in the following manner: our understanding depends, in a great measure, on the blood; some people think, entirely. Now the bile being put in motion by some cause or other, penetrates into the veins, breaks the consistence of the blood, dilutes it with
serosities

serosities and heats it. This heat is soon communicated to all the parts of the body: a fever is kindled; and from its intenseness, and the dilution of the blood, the senses are alienated. Persons labouring under this disorder, are not, as to their mental faculties, unlike *atrabilarians*: but in these, the complaint originating from a corruption of the blood by a mixture of bile and phlegm, there is a less degree of delirium.

Another Disease.—A sudden pain of the head sometimes seizes a man in health: his voice immediately fails him; he falls, and remains snoring, with his mouth wide open: in this condition he is perfectly insensible of whatever is said or done about him; a large flow of urine takes place, but without his perceiving it. When a fever arises, it is a very favourable circumstance: when it does not, he dies within seven days. A physician, called to a patient in this situation, should use a good deal of warm fomentations; pour in his

mouth some honey diluted in warm water, and afterwards purge him: for without this caution, the disorder is apt to return. However, the first attack commonly proves fatal.

Hepatitis.—An afflux of black bile to the liver, is the cause of this disease. It chiefly prevails in autumn, and produces the following symptoms: a great pain at the liver, also towards the last ribs, the humerus, the throat, and the breast; with a sensation of strangulation. Sometimes the patient vomits a livid sort of bile, feels some degree of rigor, afterwards has a slight fever for a few days, and suffers a good deal in his bowels. In the progress of the disorder the fever disappears, the pain is confined to the liver, and varies in its intenseness. Sometimes the patient is suddenly carried off in the beginning. Abstinence from food, warm fomentations, goat's milk, tickling the fauces to help vomiting when nature shews a propensity, constitute

constitute the method of cure. In the course of seven days, the physician is enabled to judge whether the disorder will prove mortal or not. Another species of the same complaint happens in summer, from eating ox-flesh, and drinking too much wine. The patient's complexion resembles the rind of pomegranate; and his pains are without remission. Many sorts of milk are given in this complaint. One must purge with the scammony, bleed in the inside vein of the right arm, and if these means should prove insufficient, and the liver should swell, proceed to the operation of burning*.

In the jaundice, after having purged with hellebore, it is serviceable to administer four cantharides, pounded without their wings or feet, but of six ounces of white wine.

* The disorders of the spleen he treated very much in the same manner.

The Fever called mortal.—The patient suffers from rigor and fever; his head aches, his eye-brows are drawn up, the eyes seem to be getting out of their orbits; he throws up bile and saliva by the mouth, he feels a pain at the neck and at his groin; his strengths are prostrate, and his senses are gone. This disease is fatal: people seized with it, die within the seventh day; those that out-live this time commonly recover. Cold applications must be used for the head and viscera. A beverage, made of barley, bruised and burnt with its straw, macerated in water, and afterwards filtered and mixed with honey, should be given †.

Ileus.—A heat in the superior venter, and a coldness in the lower one, are the cause of this complaint. The intestinal tube, from inflammation loses its moisture, gets hard, painful, swelled, and constipated:

† The rest of the method of cure is omitted, on account of its contradictions.

so that neither wind, nor fæces, can find a passage out. The patient throws up phlegm, then bilious, and even stercoral matters: he grows thirsty, complains of a pain all over the abdomen, particularly about the præcordia; he gets restless, and a fever seizes him, especially the seventh day. The superior venter must be purged without losing one moment: blood is to be drawn from the head and arm. With a view to lessen the inflammation of the upper region, cold applications should be used on the parts situated above the diaphragm, except the heart: but the lower parts are to be constantly kept warm by fomentations; sitting the patient on the vapours of warm water, and rubbing him with oil. A suppository, seven or eight inches long, made of honey, but anointed at its extremity with some *ox-gall*, should be two or three times thrust into the anus, in order to burn or bring out the contents of the rectum: if this succeeds,
a glyster

a glyster is then to be thrown up; if it fails, one must, by means of a large pair of bellows, distend with air the intestines, and afterwards inject a glyster made of dissolving, and penetrating, but not heating, ingredients. After the removal of the Ileus, if a fever arises, the patient dies *.

Disease

* In the chapter *de Intern. Affection.* there are three other diseases, called also *Ilei*: though not much connected with this, or, indeed, with one another. The last of these three, *Dr. Milman*, in his late ingenious publication, has partly quoted, with a view to confirm us in the opinion, that the scurvy was not unknown to the ancients. Many symptoms of this disease are certainly mentioned in that place; as the offensive breath, the colliquation of gums, hemorrhages from the nose, &c. and in the description of the first, some of its causes are also related. I will say nothing against *Dr. Milman's* expediency of adjusting the symptoms of one species to the causes of another, because nobody can suppose the scurvy to be a new evil. Its most prolific source, viz. aliments of difficult digestion, must in all ages, have had opportunities of exerting itself; in all ages the same causes produce the same effects; consequently,

Disease of the Articulations.—Heat and pain attack the articulations; and in a greater or less degree, fly from one to another. The cause is a determination of bile and phlegm to those parts. This disease is acute, but not mortal. Young people are more liable to it than old ones.—

quently, there can be no doubt of the scurvy's being as ancient as the world: nor can it be disputed that many passages in ancient writings evidently refer to that disorder: therefore *Dr. Freind's* opinion of its novelty is only to be considered as one of those singularities to which great men are subject. Whatever *Dr. Milman* adduces is sensible, and well adapted to his purpose. But it becomes also mine to observe, that, from the inaccuracy of ancient descriptions, one might derive arguments equally favourable to the other side of the question; for Hippocrates concludes his *convolvulus sanguineus*, (a scorbutic disorder) by an observation which hardly can be applied to the scurvy: viz. *This disease requires a good deal of treatment, otherwise it accompanies a man to his grave.*—One of his aphorisms, (*Coac. Prænot. p. 143.*) “blood oozing out of the gums, with a looseness of bowels, threatens dissolution;” is another proof of his acquaintance with this complaint, and of his being also injudiciously severe in his prognostic.

Having

Having a patient of this sort under your care, you are to attempt a relief of the painful parts, by the application of cold*, to bring the abdomen to a soluble state, and prescribe some proper beverage. The pain in the feet is more intense, and difficult to relieve, than in the articulations. It lasts also longer; for, the smaller the vessels into which the blood, thus vitiated, gets; the harder it must be to dislodge it†. If the toes are the seat of the pain, one must burn their veins a little above the articulation.

* If he had said *warmth*, and added *bleeding*, this would not have been a bad account of a rheumatic fever.

† Would not one think that *Boerhaave* is speaking?

C H A P. VIII.

Continuation of DISEASES.

TERTIAN *Fevers.*—If, after three paroxysms of this fever, a fourth happens; patients must be purged: should it be, however, thought unnecessary to do it, one ought to give them the roots of *cinque-foil* macerated in water: but if the fever does not give way to this remedy, it is proper, after using some warm fomentations, to direct some *trefoil*, and the juice of *laseric*, in an equal quantity of wine and water. Let the patient then be put to bed and keep himself well covered till a sweat breaks out. Afterwards, if he is thirsty, give him some barley-water, and in the evening, some *millet* boiled in water, and
mixed

mixed with a little wine. His diet ought to be extremely light till the disorder is removed*.

Diseases of the Kidneys.—The kidneys are subject to four different diseases: in the first, the patient feels an acute pain in the loins, and from the testicle to the kidney itself. He frequently makes water, voiding, at the same time, some sand, which causes a violent pain in the urethra, till it is evacuated. Sometimes the water is suppressed. The greatest part of physicians, unacquainted with the nature of this disorder, when they see the sand, suppose there is a stone in the bladder; whereas it is the kidney that contains it. This complaint arises from phlegm, which, remaining too long in the kidney, grows hard, and assumes the shape of small stones. After fomenting the painful parts, one must purge the patient with the juice of scammony, or with the root itself: after-

* The treatment of a quartan is much the same.

wards,

wards, diluting liquors and the warm bath are proper. But if a tumour appears, you should open the kidney, and then administer diuretic remedies to evacuate the sand. By this operation, there are hopes of recovering the patient, who cannot otherwise get rid of his disorder.

The second takes place, when, from hard labour, the veins of the kidneys are broken. At first some blood comes out with the water; rest will soon cure this: but if the kidney is purulent, a tumour appears near the spine: by cutting it deeply, health is restored. If, in attempting the operation, one should miss the kidney, and matter should break out inwardly, the patient's fate depends on the course which the purulent matter shall take: it may find its way into the rectum, and thereby get out of the system; it also may attack the other kidney, and thus be productive of the greatest danger.

In the third, the water looks like the juice of roasted ox-flesh; and the kidney is ulcerated by black bile. This disorder is seldom cured.

The fourth arises from bile and phlegm, especially in summer: the water hardly can flow out on account of the thickness and quantity of phlegm. Upon examining its sediment, it looks like thick flower of wheat; yellow, when the bile predominates; white, if the phlegm prevails: the kidney grows purulent if the disease lasts long, and in that case, one must open it and draw the matter out.

Typhus.—The bile being put in motion during the dog-days, produces this disorder. A very high fever is accompanied with such a prostration of strength, that the patient loses the use of his limbs: he cannot bear an erect posture; his eye-lids are too heavy for him to keep open; he is unable to speak; a violent pain attacks the bowels, and the dejections are very
offen-

offensive: on the point of death, his looks are penetrating, he speaks with boldness, and asks for nourishment, but unless he throws it up soon, he faints away. The seventh day commonly determines his fate: many, however, reach the 24th, and if they out-live it, recover. Persons labouring under this disease, must, in the beginning, abstain from bathing; instead of the bath let them be rubbed with wine and oil moderately warm; and instead of food, let them have thin cold liquors, and some wine. If the thirst is urgent, they should be made to vomit two or three times, after having drank a good deal: and when the heat is great, the hottest parts ought to be covered with pieces of linen dipt in cold water. This disease is dangerous, and few escape.

Tetani.—When these distortions of the body happen, the jaws and tongue seem to have lost their power of motion. The mouth cannot open itself; the eyes swim

in tears, and are inverted: the back is in a state of rigidity, as well as both extremities: the face reddens, aches violently, and towards the approach of death, phlegm and liquids are rejected through the nostrils.—Pepper, black hellebore, and warm fomentations, form the greatest part of the treatment. In general, patients die the 3d, 5th, 7th, or 14th: when they outlive this last term, they recover. The species which bends the body backwards, commonly proves fatal on the third day. It is adviseable to pour cold water, in this last case, on the body.—A wound is often the cause of a *tetanus*.

Lethargus.—In the disorder which is called lethargy, the patient coughs, spits out a great deal of thin saliva, and is delirious. When the delirium ceases, he falls asleep, and has some very offensive dejections: one ought to give him barley water, rich white wine, and the juice of the ptisan.—This complaint commonly proves

fatal within seven days ; if it is protracted beyond it, the patient recovers.

Epilepsy, or the Sacred Disease.—The ignorance of men has given to this disease the name of *sacred*, and has made them endeavour to cure it by expiations, and mysterious ceremonies ; whereas it proceeds, like other complaints, from natural causes, and is not more wonderful than quotidian, tertian, or quartan fevers. Children derive from their parents a bilious, pituitous, or consumptive, constitution : why should they not also receive from them a disposition to epilepsy ? Pituitous habits are chiefly subject to this disorder, which does not happen to bilious people. It attacks the fœtus in the womb, and if the brain is overloaded with phlegm, returns again at the age of puberty. A defluxion of this phlegm towards the heart, causes palpitations ; to the bowels, a diarrhœa ; and if to the veins of the neck, an extinction of voice ; a suffocation ; foam-

ing at the mouth ; locked jaw ; clinching of the hands ; inversion of the eyes ; loss of mental faculties ; and in some instances, fecal dejections. This disorder, when the phlegm is humid and in great quantity, proves fatal to children : but they survive it, if it is moderate ; retaining, however, some marks of its violence, such as a wry mouth, a squinting eye, a twisted neck, or a distorted hand. It is remarkable, that a person having a mark of this kind, is no more subject to a return of the complaint. In a more advanced age, it neither kills nor leaves any marks ; but there is a danger of its becoming habitual, unless prevented by proper treatment. Old people either sink under it, or lose the use of some limbs. Persons subject to this disease, commonly retire to solitary places, when their feelings warn them of a paroxysm ; not, as some people think, because they are afraid of the divinity ; but from a sort of shame to be seen in that condition. The physi-

cian's object in this, as well as in other complaints, is to direct such remedies and diet, as are known to be proper.

Insanity *. — When the humid parts of *fire*, and the dry parts of *water*, are in an equal proportion, our senses acquire from that happy combination their utmost degree of vigour. But if either happens to prevail, from that moment the understanding becomes more or less impaired, according to the degree of disproportion between these two principles. Some people, in whom water predominates a good deal, become insane: others look as if they were thunderstruck; they weep and mourn without a cause, and betray a childish fear on the most trifling occasions. Fomentations are serviceable in this case, afterwards purgation with hellebore, also emetics, and strong exercise.

Those in whom *fire* prevails, are remarkable for quickness of perceptions, and

* Sect. iv. De Vict. Rat. p. 17.

acuteness of mind. But there is a danger in those advantages, for upon the least excess in eating or drinking, or even a moderate use of wine and meat, they lose their reason and grow furious. A less substantial diet must therefore be prescribed, with abstinence from all violent exercises. They must be purged with hellebore, after having been previously prepared by fomentations: water alone ought to be their drink, or, at most, a soft white wine: warm water should often be poured upon them.

The Stone.—The water of great rivers, or of lakes, into which many streams fall; or of places, in which they have at different times accumulated themselves; are apt to produce the stone: for being composed of many different sorts, some sweet, others salt or aluminous, they must deposit a sandy sediment. Persons whose bowels and bladder are in a soluble state, may escape fabulous collections; but those of a more fiery habit, when the mouth of the bladder

bladder is attacked with inflammation, cease to make water freely, and then the gross sandy parts of these waters deposit themselves, whilst the more fluid particles are let out. In course of time this sediment increases from the same causes, and acquires the shape of a knob, which being often carried to the mouth of the bladder, suddenly stops the emission of urine, and causes excruciating pains. The water of people under this affliction, resembles the most limpid serum, because the grosser parts are left behind: and children are constantly rubbing, and handling their genitals*.

Dropsies.—The most common cause of water's spreading itself under the skin, is a slow recovery from a lingering disease, in which cathartics have not been sufficiently

* This account is taken from the chapter *de Aer. Loc. et Aqu.* Sect. iii. p. 68. In another place, he attributes the stone in children to the impure milk of nurses.

given.

given. The fleshy parts melt away, and are converted into water. Dropsies are formed also from a diseased state of the liver, and spleen, from white phlegm, and from a looseness of the bowels. When a dropsy takes place, from having omitted to evacuate morbid humours, the abdomen is filled with water, the legs and feet swell, the arms, neck, breast, and hips, waste away. Should you happen to be consulted in the beginning of such a case, prescribe such remedies, as have the power of exciting a discharge of water and phlegm by the bowels; but be aware not to put the bile in motion. Diet and exercise must be made conducive towards rendering the patient thin and dry, and strengthening his flesh. Dropsies are generally mortal, but especially when the belly contains the water. The same method of treatment is to be followed, when the disorder is owing to some of the other causes we have mentioned; but it seldom succeeds;

succeeds; for a disease brought about in consequence of another, commonly carries the patient off. If no abatement happens from remedies, the only chance remaining is the operation, which indeed is seldom successful.

When the whole body is swollen and white, the same parts appearing, in the same day, better and worse, the method of cure is as before.

There is also a dry sort of dropsy*.

* It is not unlikely that he meant a *tympany*, by this expression, as *Sauvages* in his *Nosology* supposes.

REMARKS

REMARKS *on the* DISEASES.

OF all the works of Hippocrates, the chapters out of which the preceding *specimens* have been extracted, are, in my opinion, the most interesting: they contain, if not a good description, at least, a distinction of diseases; with proper names affixed to the greatest part of them, and a judgment, generally just, of their different degrees of danger. It is a short sketch of an history, in which the scarcity of materials is often supplied by the writer's imagination; but which, imperfect as it is, cannot have been drawn without great assistance from a long series of annals and chronicles. Indeed, though Hippocrates is not fond of quotations, it would be unjust to suppose he ever meant to pass himself upon posterity for the first regular observer of diseases, or, in other words, for the

the father of physic. Many of his expressions sufficiently acquit him of that intention; and prove, at the same time, that before him diseases had been observed, described, and named. He says, *the fever, called mortal; the vein of the liver, as it is called; many writers having treated this subject*: he speaks of the *ancients*; he mentions besides some disorders, which being not likely to have ever existed*, afford more than a probable conjecture, that he did not confine himself to recording only what he had seen, but added to his collection, cases taken from others, without, perhaps, much examination. As to his theories, which he never fails to deliver with the ease of a man who is mentioning a known truth, what a learned writer† says of our present state of physic, may, with still greater propriety,

* Some of his *morbi crassi*, and a *typhus*, according to *Le Clerc*.

† *Sauvages Nosolog. Method.* Vol. iii. p. 125. *Amstelodami*, 1763.

be applied to them. "We know the true
"theory of but very few diseases; how-
"ever, we do not hesitate to explain them
"all, because we neither like to seem at a
"loss before our patients, and their half-
"learned attendants, nor to confess our
"ignorance." Indifferent as this excuse
is, nothing so plausible can be said, I be-
lieve, in palliation of some of his remedies;
whether his salt acrimonious compositions
were intended for the stomach only, or
directed, as there is reason to suspect, for
an immediate injection into the trachea;
in either case, such a practice little agrees
with the genius of observation, which he
has been celebrated for, or with that con-
summate experience which, in the opinion
of some writers, ought to give to his asser-
tions, the character of undisputable truths.
Concerning the manner in which I have
made the preceding extracts; these few
pages being intended, as has been said, for
students only, or for such practitioners as
have

have not leisure to dip much into ancient learning, I shall be allowed to declare, that if I have ~~shortened~~ the matter, I have not, to the best of my knowledge, impaired it. It is my desire to establish an easy access to this hallowed temple, but not to commit any irreverence against the Deity. Should any critic incline to censure me for leaving some treatises, on the diseases of women, unnoticed, I will obviate their reflections by remarking, that a long discourse, which, excepting a few sensible observations on the causes of sterility, as a wrong situation of the uterus, a membrane covering its aperture, &c. is made up of receipts for bringing the menses on, or making a woman conceive; for knowing whether she is pregnant, or whether she bears a male or female child; with a recommendation of almost every plant known in his time; has not appeared to me likely to afford any entertainment to the reader, or to reflect any lustre on Hippocrates.

CHAP.

C H A P. IX.

Translation of the First Book of EPIDEMICS,

IN the Island of *Thasus*, soft continual rains, such as are usual with a south-wind, fell towards the autumnal equinox, and the setting of the *Pleiades*. The following winter was warm, more dry than commonly, with scarcely any north-wind; on the whole, much like spring weather: the wind was, in the spring, chiefly south, though pretty cold, with some small rains. Summer proved overcast, but not rainy: The annual winds blew but gently, and not long at a time. A little while before spring, when the temperature was southern and dry, some ardent fevers appeared, but without any alarming symptoms: they were regular in their course, and seldom attended

attended with hemorrhages from the nose. Many had a swelling behind one or both ears, which brought on no fever, nor even required confinement, though not always free from heat. However, these tumours constantly disappeared without any bad consequence, or even coming to suppuration, which is not the case when they arise from a different cause. They were soft, flaccid, large, and diffused, without inflammation or pain; and all of them vanished by degrees, without any critical sign*. This symptom chiefly prevailed among young people: some felt its first approach while exercising themselves in the *Palæstra* and *Gymnasium*: few women had it. Numbers of people were seized with dry coughs, without any expectoration, and followed by a hoarseness. Some were attacked with inflammations and pain in one or both testicles, accompanied with fever in some cases, and none in others.

* *Ἀσπυμὴ, without signs.*

Many suffered a great deal from these complaints, but were not obliged to undergo any chirurgical operation*. From the latter end of the spring, to the beginning of winter, many consumptive people died; and many, whose constitutions disposed them to that disease, fell into a decided consumption. They died in such numbers, that I am not sure whether a single one escaped. Their fate was sooner determined than is usual in that disorder, especially if you consider that many of them had recovered before from longer attacks. In general, they were seized with a great degree of horror, followed by an acute fever, the paroxysms of which, resembled those of semi-tertian fevers; abating one day, increasing the next, and growing more violent every time. Continual sweats but not universal; a coldness in the extre-

* Τα δ' αλλα οκοσα κατ' ιντροιον ανοσως διηγον, p. 12. This passage is rather obscure. I have followed the interpretation of *Foesius*.

mities which could hardly be conquered; small, liquid, bilious, acrid, and frequent alvine dejections; a small quantity of thin, crude, colourless urine, with a small sediment of no consistence nor *signification* *; a difficult and small expectoration of thick and concocted matter in some cases, quite crude in others; were the prevailing symptoms. Many had a redness and an inflammation in the throat, which never abated, with a defluxion of a thin acrid fluid, which soon exhausted them. All expressed an aversion to food, but had no thirst: several grew delirious towards the last.—So much concerning consumptions.

Towards summer and autumn, there were a good many continual fevers, which lasted a long while without being dangerous, or attacking those who laboured under other complaints; many had their bowels slightly disordered; the urine was

* *Ακαίρως*, not timely: probably meaning, that it did not happen at any of the critical days.

in general of a good colour, and, though clear and thin, shewed marks of coction at the critical times. These patients were not much troubled with a cough; they expectorated without difficulty; had no aversion to nourishment, on the contrary, took it readily. Upon the whole, those who wasted away, were not affected in the usual manner of other consumptive persons, but after a sensation of horror, grew feverish, sweated a little, sometimes had vague and irregular paroxysms which did not entirely subside, but imitated the invasion of tertians. The shortest course of this disease was twenty days, at which period it terminated itself critically: in general, it ran to the 40th; in some instances, to the 80th; and in others, ended without any critical decision. Many who had soon got rid of it, suffered a relapse; and in this second attack, the disorder observed the same periods as in the first; in some cases, indeed, it protracted itself till winter.

winter. However, people in a consumptive state were the only ones that perished. The other fevers did not prove mortal.

Constitution of another Year.

Before the autumn the weather was not seasonable in the Island of *Thasus*: there was a good deal of rain, with sudden squalls of south and north wind, and this lasted till the setting of the *Pleiades*. The winter was cold, with abundance of rain and snow; intermixed, however, with many clear and fine days. Hitherto there was nothing unnatural in this cold weather; but after the winter solstice, when zephyr commonly begins to breathe*, the temperature proved still excessively cold; the north wind prevailed, with incessant falls of rain or snow, the skies were stormy, and all this continued till the equinox. The spring was cold, pluvius, and overcast: nor was the summer hot. The an-

* This expression is in the text.

nual winds incessantly blew, and the *Aqui-*
with East Winds *lons* prevailing at the time of the *Arctu-*
in the first *rus*, there fell a good deal of rain. The
in the first whole year being then wet, cold, and
in the first northerly; people in general preserved
in the first their health till winter; but before the
in the first opening of spring, many complained hea-
in the first vily: at first a painful inflammation of the
in the first eyes spread itself, and disfigured them with
in the first thick viscosities. Many who had been
in the first twice afflicted with this disorder, got rid
in the first of it in autumn. During summer and au-
in the first tumn, bilious dysenteries prevailed, at-
in the first tended with tenesmus and great pain. Many
in the first suffered a strangury, not from any disease
in the first of the kidneys, but from the various ef-
in the first fects of an afflux of bilious, watery, fibrous,
in the first purulent matter. Vomiting of phlegm,
in the first of bile, and of undigested aliments, with
in the first universal sweats, frequently happened.
in the first Several persons were disordered in this
in the first manner without taking to their beds, or
in the first having any fever: others were feverish, of
 whom

whom we shall soon give an account. Those who laboured under all the symptoms we have mentioned, after suffering much, grew consumptive towards winter. The species of fevers with which they were attacked, were continued, in a very few instances ardent, diurnal, nocturnal, semi-tertian, perfect tertians, quartans, erratic. The symptoms attending these fevers, were not very violent, for few lost any blood from the nose*, and none lost much, nor was there any delirium. In many instances the ardent fever † terminated regularly and critically, within seventeen days; and I question whether it once proved fatal, or occasioned a phrenzy. Tertians were more numerous and severe than ardent fe-

* The word *hemorrhage* used in the text, would not in this place convey a just idea of the author's meaning, as it implies among us a considerable effusion.

† Just now this fever, he said, happened to very few.

vers ; but all of them, after the first attack, assumed the quartan type * in a regular manner, and terminating critically within seven paroxysms, never returned again. Spontaneous quartans followed their usual course and order ; but those into which other fevers were converted, lasted longer than is usual. Many of the quotidians, nocturnal and erratic, proved obstinate, both to those who were confined by them, and those who kept about : they frequently lasted till winter. Several people, children especially, had convulsions in the beginning, either at the same time with the fever, or afterwards. They lasted a long while, in general, but without doing much harm themselves.

There were some continual fevers which had no intermission, but all of which resembled, in their attacks, those fevers

* If, after the first fit, they turned out quartans, what could make Hippocrates think they were tertians ?

which

which come near the nature of tertians*, being lower one day, higher the next, trifling in the beginning, afterwards constantly increasing, having their paroxysms in the critical days, but getting worse at every one; they were, upon the whole, the longest, the most violent, and the most troublesome of all the fevers of that time; for if they happened to decline a little, they soon acquired new strength from that intermission, and commonly had an exacerbation on the days of crises: a few irregular and vague shivering fits, less violent than in other fevers, attended all these complaints; with some sweats, which instead of relieving, increase the symptoms. The extremities were so cold, that they hardly could be made to recover their warmth. In all cases, there was a propensity to dozing; but in this fever, patients

* The reader may suppose, that such a passage as this is no small theme for the verbosity of commentators.

were

were oppressed with sleep. In all complaints, the bowels were disordered, but not so much as in this. Many voided a thin, colourless urine, without sediment; which, after some time, shewed some marks of coction, but, upon the whole, was very unfavourable *. Coughs accompanied the fevers, but I will not mention at present, of what use or detriment they were. All these symptoms were obstinate, lasted a long while, followed no regular course or order, and whether ending in death, or recovery, had no critical decision: for if they intermitted for some time, they soon returned again. There were some few instances of their terminating with some appearance of a crisis towards the 80th day, but even then some patients suffered a relapse, which extended to the winter †.

* The passage from which this phrase is taken, is unintelligible or contradictory, p. 19.

† This paragraph ends with a repetition of what has been said a few lines before; viz. *In general, these complaints had no critical decision, whether the patients lived or died.*

During

During the whole course of the disease, a very bad symptom accompanied this non-critical termination, viz. an aversion to food of all kinds, especially in those who had other unfavourable signs. In these fevers thirst was not *untimely*. But after the patients had, from long sufferings, wasted away, abscesses took place, which proved either too considerable for their strength, or too small for procuring any relief; and which returned inwardly with greater danger. Violent pains in the bowels, frequent, but useless, desires of going to stool, diarrhœas, and some drop-fical complaints, formed the train of these fevers, or even appeared by themselves. Any of these symptoms, when violent, soon proved fatal; none were beneficial. Some patients had a small eruption, unequal to the intenseness of the disease, and which soon disappeared: others, a swelling of the ears, which also subsided gradually and uncritically. Some were seized with pains
in

in the articulations, the hip especially; which, though critical in a few instances, generally did not alter the type of the disorder. People of all ages died of these complaints, but especially children between the time of infancy, and that of puberty: some being carried off by the last-mentioned symptoms; others by the first. The most favourable turn was a strangury; for the greater part of those, in whom the morbid matter was determined that way, recovered surprisingly. Children, and others, who were not confined to their beds, had this symptom. A sudden and great change happened at this period; for the bowels, from a very loose state, became too much bound: the patients recovered their appetite, and the fever abated. The strangury lasted a long while, and proved very troublesome: the urine was copious, thick, red, and partly purulent: its emission

sion painful; but I do not know an instance of its terminating fatally*.

Constitution of another Year.

A little while before the rising of the *Arcturus*, the wind being north, frequent heavy rains fell in *Thasus*, towards the equinox, and continued till the rising of the *Pleiades*. The wind was south, and the rains small and moderate. The winter proved very cold, drier than usual, and had many falls of snow. The equinox was excessively cold. North winds and great dryness prevailed in the spring, with a few cold rainy days. From the summer solstice to the dog-days, the weather was very cold, and little rainy: afterwards it grew very warm, and constantly lasted so till the *Arcturus*, without rain, or any other wind than the annual. From the *Arcturus* to the equinox, the wind was

* A paragraph is here omitted, as having no connection either with what precedes or what follows.

south,

south, and the weather pluvius. During this state of the air till the winter, palsies were wonderfully frequent, and, in some instances, soon proved fatal. Ardent fevers begun to appear before the spring, and lasted till the equinox, and even the summer. Those who were taken ill in the spring, or beginning of summer, escaped for the most part; but in autumn, the weather being rainy, numbers were carried off. It is remarkable, that a large effusion of blood from the nostrils, seemed in these fevers to save the patients' lives; for not one died that had a plentiful hemorrhage. *Phlisseus*, *Epaminon*, and *Silenus*, having lost but a few drops of blood, the two first on the fourth day, the last on the fifth, were carried off. Towards the crisis, most patients, those especially who had not this fortunate evacuation, were seized with a rigor, and after a second attack, a sweat broke out. The jaundice supervened on the sixth day to some people, and went off

off by a large flow of urine, a looseness of the bowels, or a hemorrhage from the nose, as was the case on the 20th with *Heracides*, who lodged at *Aristocydes's*. The servant of *Phanagoras*, having had none of these evacuations, died. The hemorrhage happened chiefly to young persons; the greatest part of those who had it not, perished. Among people more advanced in years, the disorder changed into a jaundice, accompanied with a painful looseness of bowels, as was the case with *Bion*, who lodged at *Silenus's*. These pains of the bowels spread a good deal in summer, and proved a very common issue of the fever, after a hemorrhage, as it happened to *Myllus*, *Eraton's* child.

The morbid humour seemed to be abundant, and not always determined to one place : for*

* This is the sense I have given to a passage, obscure enough in the Greek, but much more so in the Latin. πολλοῖς μὲν οὐκ ἔστιν αἷμα οὗτος χυμὸς ἐπεπολάσειν. *Copiosus igitur præcipue que hic humor fluitabat.*

some people, who towards the critical day had no discharge of blood by the nose, felt a swelling about the ears, which soon after removed to the hollow part of the left side, and the top of the hip. Patients were now troubled with pains, they voided a thin urine, and some blood began to drop from their nostrils. *Antiphon*, son of *Critobulus*, got rid of depositions of matter by a hemorrhage from the nose; and after it had ceased, his disorder entirely and critically left him about the 40th day. Many women were also taken ill, some of whom died, but in a less number than men. A great many had a dangerous lying-in, followed by an illness which often proved fatal; as was the case with *Telebulus's* daughter, who died on the sixth day after being brought to bed. During many fevers, the *menfes* appeared; their first eruption happened at that time to many, and some had a hemorrhage from the nose. In some instances, the blood broke out at
the

the same time from those two parts, as happened to the daughter of *Dætharxis*; and I have not heard that any died, in whom either of these evacuations, or both, took place. All the pregnant women who were attacked with this fever, miscarried; at least all those that came within my knowledge. Their urine was, in general, of a good colour, though thin and with little sediment; alvine dejections were liquid and bilious. The disease, though having undergone a regular crisis, in general brought on violent pains of the bowels; as it happened to *Xenophane* and *Critia*. After the crisis, some voided a great deal of thin, watery urine, which, however, after other crises, had a copious sediment. I have thought proper to record these instances, among which were *Bion*, who lived at *Silenus's*; *Cratia*, who was at *Xenophane's* house; the child of *Areton*; and the wife of *Mnefistratus*. All these were tormented with pains in the bowels;

P

and

and it is worth our while to enquire, whether the pains were occasioned by the limpid state of the urine. About the time of the *Arcturus*, a crisis generally happened on the eleventh day, which terminated the disorder, and prevented a relapse. About that time patients were oppressed with sleep, children especially, and were carried off. Ardent fevers appeared from the equinox to the latter end of autumn. Great many were seized with fevers, attended with a constant delirium, out of which few escaped, especially during summer. The ardent fevers sufficiently shewed their dangerous nature from the beginning: for, rigor, watchfulness, confusion of thoughts, thirst, heat, and restlessness, distressed the patients: a moistness appeared about their forehead and neck, without ever spreading over the whole body. They were very delirious, troubled with fear, dejection of mind, and coldness of the extremities. The paroxysms happened on
the

the even days: generally the fourth day was the most laborious: long cold sweats took place: the extremities, instead of recovering their warmth, remained cold and livid; thirst ceased at this period. The urine was black, thin, and in small quantity; the belly bound; no hemorrhage from the nose, only a few drops; they died on the sixth day in a sweat. All these symptoms did not appear in those who were delirious; these patients generally grew better on the 11th or 20th day. When delirium did not supervene on the third or fourth day, and the symptoms were moderate from the beginning, the disease, towards the seventh day, was at its greatest height.

The number of diseases was then great, and those who died of them were chiefly adolescents, young and middle-aged people, of a smooth skin, fair complexion, long black hair, black eyes, living an inactive life, having a shrill acute tone of

voice or stammering, with an irritable, irascible disposition: many women of this description lost their lives. Four signs were remarkably favourable in this illness, viz. a hemorrhage from the nose; a great flow of urine, with a copious sediment of a good kind; bilious alvine dejections happening at a proper time; and pains in the bowels. All those who had one or more of these critical evacuations, did well: women and young girls were of this number; their *menfes* were also a happy circumstance; and not one of them, that I know of, died, except the daughter of *Philon*, who, after a plentiful hemorrhage from the nose, had the imprudence to eat an evening meal on the seventh day.

C H A P. X.

*Translation of the CASES related in the
First Book of EPIDEMICS.*

C A S E I.

PHILISCUS, who lived near the
Walls, on being seized with an acute
fever and sweats, took to his bed the first
day, and passed a restless night. The next
day all the symptoms were more intense;
but an injection in the bowels abated their
violence, and occasioned a good night. He
seemed to be free from fever the morning
of the third day, till twelve o'clock; but
towards the evening the fever returned,
with sweat, thirst, and dryness of the
tongue. His urine was black, he passed a
bad night, had no sleep, and was very de-
lirious.

lirious. On the fourth, every thing grew worse; the urine quite black; the night was less laborious, the urine of a better colour. On the fifth, a little blood dropt from the nostrils, towards noon; the urine was of various hue, with a light, round cloud towards the top, which did not subside, and resembled the genital humor: by means of a suppository*, he got rid of some flatulencies, but had little rest at night; was incoherent in his speech; with a coldness of the extremities, which nothing could overcome; and voided

* A *suppository*, and a *peffary*, are solid compositions, in the shape of a candle, made up of different ingredients, according to the indication. The first, *Balanos*, *glans*, is introduced into the anus to irritate the rectum, and procure an evacuation. The second is for the vagina; and Hippocrates commonly expresses this last contrivance, by *τα προσθετα*, from the verb *προσθηαι*, *apponere*; or the operation itself, by relating the participle of the same verb to the patient: thus *προσθεται*, signifies a woman, in whose case a pessary has been employed.

black

black urine: towards the morning his voice failed, a cold sweat broke out, the prominent parts * turned livid, and about noon he died on the sixth day. During the whole illness, his respiration was oppressed like that of a man under a load of cares; the spleen arose in a round swelling, and the cold sweat continued to the last. The paroxysms took place on even days.

C A S E II.

Silenus, who lived on the sea shore, near the house of *Evalcidus*, was seized with a violent fever, from excess in drinking and in exercise. His illness begun by a pain in the loins, head-ach, and a wry neck. On the first day, he had many stools; merely bilious, of a strong colour, and frothy; the urine was black, deposited a black sediment; the tongue dry, he grew thirsty,

* *Ἀκρὰ, summitates*; viz. the nails, toes, tip of the nose, ears, &c.

and had no sleep at night. On the following day, he was very feverish, had many thin frothy stools, black urine, a restless night, and at times was delirious. The third, every thing wore a worse aspect; swelling of the hypochondres, to the height of the navel; blackish alvine dejections; turbid black urine; sleepless nights, talkativeness, laughter, and singing, without any command of himself. No alteration on the fourth day. On the fifth, he had some bilious stools, looking smooth and unctuous; his urine was thin and limpid, he recovered his senses a little. A small sweat appeared on the sixth about the head, the extremities grew cold and livid, he was extremely restless, very feverish, and had no evacuation. On the seventh, he lost his voice; the extremities could no longer be kept warm; he made no water. A cold sweat diffused itself over all the limbs, on the eighth; small red round pimples broke out with it, and did not disappear,

The bowels were somewhat excited ; with difficulty, he voided some thin undigested matters ; he passed, with pain, a small quantity of hot water ; the extremities got a little warmer, his naps were short, his voice failed, and the urine was thin and limpid. No alteration on the ninth. He took no nourishment on the tenth ; was oppressed with sleep, though he slept but little at a time ; the faces were the same ; the urine deposited a thickish white sediment, not unlike the coarse fragments of toasted barley which is not finely ground : the extremities were again cold. On the eleventh he died. From the beginning to the end of the disease, he breathed with great distention of the chest, and at long intervals * ; and there was a constant palpitation in the hypochondres. His age was about twenty.

* Πνευμα μεγα αραιον.

C A S E III.

Herophon was taken ill with an acute fever : his stools, at first, were such as are usual with a *tenesmus*, but afterwards bilious, liquid and large. He could get no sleep ; his urine was thin and black : and on the morning of the fifth day, he grew deaf, and worse in every respect. The spleen was swelled, the præcordia distended, the bowels rather bound, and he began to ramble. The sixth, he was delirious ; a sweat appeared towards night, accompanied with cold, and a continuation of the delirium. The seventh, a coldness seized the prominent parts, he was thirsty and delirious ; towards night he came to himself and slept. The eighth he had the fever, the swelling of the spleen abated, he was perfectly in his senses, he felt a pain in the groin, and a tumour, for the first time, appeared in that part directly under the spleen ; then the pain flew to the legs ;

he had an easy night, the urine was of better colour, with some sediment. On the ninth day, a sweat breaking out proved critical, and the disorder went off: but five days after, it returned with a swelling of the spleen, acute fever and deafness. On the third day after this relapse, the spleen subsided, he could hear better, his legs were painful; a sweat breaking out at night, the disorder was critically terminated on the 17th day. During the course of this relapse, there was no delirium.

C A S E IV.

The wife of *Philinus*, after being brought to bed of a girl, in *Thasus*, without any unfavourable circumstance, was attacked, on the fourteenth day of her delivery, with a most violent fever and rigor. From the beginning, she complained of a pain about the upper orifice of the stomach, the right hypochondre, and the parts of generation:
the

the uterine discharge was suppressed. Some of these symptoms were relieved by a pessary, but the pains of the head, neck, and loins, continued; she had no sleep, was thirsty, the extremities were cold, the fæces hard and in small quantity; the urine thin and pale at first. On the sixth day, she grew delirious towards night, but came again to herself. The seventh, she was thirsty, had bilious dejections strongly coloured. The eighth she had a return of *rigor*, with a high degree of fever, followed by painful convulsions and delirium: by means of a suppository, she had a large alvine evacuation greatly bilious, but could get no sleep. On the ninth, she was convulsed. The tenth, recovered her senses. Slept on the 11th, recollected every thing, but soon after grew delirious again. During the convulsions, she voided a great deal of white thick urine, not unlike that which, after remaining some time unmoved, is agitated again; it had no sediment, but
in

in colour and thickness resembled the water of mares. On the 14th, palpitations invaded the whole body, she talked a good deal, was at times sensible, at others rambling. About the 17th, she lost her voice: and on the 20th, she died.

C A S E V.

The wife of *Epicrates*, who lodged at *Archigetes's*, was seized, about the time of her delivery, with a most violent rigor, without growing hot afterwards. The next day, she continued in the same state. On the third, she was brought to bed of a daughter, with the usual concomitant symptoms. The day following, she had a high fever, with pain at the upper orifice of the stomach, and at the genitals. These symptoms were relieved by introducing a pessary; but the head, neck, and loins, began to ach, and sleep forsook her. The stools were small, liquid, and bilious; the urine thin and black. The sixth day, after
a pa-

a paroxysm of fever, she grew delirious towards night. On the seventh, every sign was more unfavourable, she rambled without sleeping, was thirsty, had bilious stools highly coloured. The eighth, after an attack of rigor, she was easier. No alteration on the ninth. She was, on the tenth, troubled again with pains in the legs and in the stomach, with head-ach, though not delirious, for she had some sleep, and the bowels were less disordered. The urine on the eleventh had a better colour, with a copious sediment, the patient was relieved. The 14th, a high fever followed a fit of rigor. She vomited on the 15th yellow, bilious matter, several times; a sweat appeased the fever: towards night she was again highly feverish, her urine was thick with a white sediment. The 16th, all these symptoms increased, she was worse, had no rest, grew delirious. The 18th, her tongue was parched, she was dry, had no sleep, rambled a good deal, and was
tormented

tormented with the pain in her legs. About the 20th, after some shiverings, she slept quietly; vomited some black bilious matter, and became deaf towards night. About the 21st, a sensation of weight, accompanied with pain, was felt on the left side; she coughed a little, and voided thick, red, and turbid urine, which deposited no sediment: she was, however, better, tho' not free from fever. From the beginning of the complaint, there had been in the fauces, some degree of pain and inflammation; the *pendulum* was contracted, and a salt, acrimonious, corrosive humour dropt on those parts to the end. On the 27th she was free from fever, a sediment appeared in the urine, her side ached a little. Towards the 34th, the fever was re-kindled, and an afflux of bile disordered the bowels. She brought up some bile on the 40th. The disease ended critically the 80th, and the fever entirely disappeared.

C A S E VI.

Cleonaetides, who lived above *Heraclius*, was taken ill of a violent fever, which observed no regular course. Soon after the first attack, he complained of a pain in his head and left side, with a sensation of weariness in all his limbs. He had other irregular paroxysms, sometimes accompanied with sweats, sometimes without any, which generally appeared on some of the critical days. Towards the 24th, his fingers grew cold, he threw up several times yellow or green bilious matter, which relieved him. About the 30th, some blood begun to flow from both nostrils, and continued, at times, to the end. He was not thirsty, had no disrelish to food, nor was he sleepless; his urine was thin, but not without some colour. It was reddish on the 40th, with a considerable red sediment, and he was better: afterwards, it had at times a sediment, at others none. On the 60th,

60th, it deposited a light, but considerable, white matter: the symptoms lost their intenseness, the fever intermitted: the urine, however, re-assumed its thin appearance, though of a good colour. On the 70th, the fever left him for ten days. The 80th, after a severe shivering fit, he had a violent fever, and a plentiful sweat; a light red sediment appeared in the urine, and the disorder left him entirely.

C A S E VII.

Meton was seized with a high fever, attended with pain and a sensation of heaviness in the loins. The next day, from drinking a good deal of water, he had some motions. The third, his head ached, the faecal dejections were thin, bilious, and, at times, red. The fourth, he was worse in every respect: some blood dropt twice from the right nostril, he had a bad night, his stools were as before, the urine had a black hue, with something black

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floating upon it, without consistence. The fifth, a hemorrhage happened from the left nostril, and a sweat supervening, proved critical: however, he rambled after this crisis without sleeping, and his urine was thin and blackish: he received much relief from bathing his head, and recovered his faculties. He had no relapse, but even after the crisis, he frequently lost blood from the nose.

C A S E VIII.

Erasinus, who lived near the fall of the river *Bootes*, in rising from table was taken ill of a violent fever, and passed a very restless night*. The next day, every symptom was increased, and towards night he grew delirious. He was very

* To this sentence succeeds the following, the first part of which is a contradiction, and the second a repetition of what he has just said, therefore it is omitted: Ημέρην ἢ πρώτην δι' ησυχίας νικταεπιπορος. *He was tolerably well the first-day, but very restless at night.*

bad the third day, and rambled a good deal. Much worse on the fourth, had no sleep at night, appeared to dream, and talk sensibly, but soon lost himself, and (what deserves our utmost attention) was fearful and agitated. On the morning of the fifth day, he seemed to be composed, and to have entirely recovered his senses: but towards noon he was furious, had no command of himself; the extremities were cold and livid, the urine without signs of coction, and at sun-set he died. To the end he was troubled with fever, sweats, swelling and tension of the præcordia, accompanied with pain. The bowels did their functions, but his urine was black, with something round swimming at the top, without ever subsiding. The thirst was continual, though not great: when near death, he was convulsed, and sweated a good deal.

C A S E IX.

As *Criton*, of *Thasus*, was walking, he suddenly felt a violent pain in the great toe; he took the same day to his bed, complaining of shiverings and nausea: he then got a little warmer, and towards night began to ramble. The next day, a dark reddish swelling appeared over all the foot and heel, followed by small black pimples, acute fever, delirium, many bilious stools, and death.

C A S E X.

Clazomenius, who lived near *Phrynichides'* well, being seized with a violent fever, began to feel a pain in the head, neck and loins: a deafness immediately followed, with watchfulness, high fever, swelling of the præcordia with great tension, and dryness of the tongue. On the evening of the fourth day, a delirium supervened. The fifth, he was worse in every

every respect. Towards the 11th, the symptoms somewhat abated. His stools, from the beginning to the 14th, were frequent and watery, afterwards costive. All this time the urine was thin, but of good colour, with an expanded cloud in the middle, which did not subside. Towards the 16th, it was a little thicker, and had some sediment: the patient was, upon the whole, relieved, and more sensible. The 17th, his water was again without signs of coction, a painful swelling appeared near the ears; he had no sleep, was delirious, and teased with a pain in his legs. On the 20th, he critically got rid of his fever, did not sweat, and recovered his senses. Towards the 27th, a violent pain attacked the hip, but soon vanished: as to the tumours of the ears, they neither abated, nor came to suppuration, but continued to be painful. About the 31st, he had a number of watery stools, such as are usual in a dysentery: voided thick water, and the swelling of

the ears subsided. Towards the 40th, he complained of a pain in the right eye, which for a time affected his sight.

C A S E XI.

The day after *Dromeades'* wife had been brought to bed of a daughter, without any unfavourable circumstance, she was attacked with rigor and a high fever. From the beginning she complained of a pain about the *præcordia*, attended with nausea, horror, and great restlessness: nor could she, for some time after, get any sleep: her respiration was slow, laborious, and suddenly interrupted, in a spasmodic manner. The day after the rigor, the bowels were in a proper state, the urine thick and white, such as the sediment commonly appears when it has been kept some time in a glass, but did not deposit: she had no sleep at night. The third day, towards noon, after a new fit of rigor, came on an acute fever; the urine was as before; she had also pains
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in the præcordia, sickness and nausea; passed a restless night; a cold sweat spread itself all over the body, but, however, she soon recovered some warmth. On the fourth, the pain of the side somewhat abated, but heaviness and pain attacked the head; she had some sleep, some blood dropt from the nostrils, the tongue was extremely dry, she complained of thirst, the urine was thin and oily, she got some rest. The fifth she was thirsty, inclined to retch, had no stools, grew delirious towards noon, but soon after came a little to herself; her water remained in the same state: after getting up, she dozed a little, grew rather cold, at night she slept and rambled. On the morning of the sixth day, she had another fit of rigor, which soon gave way; a general sweat oozed out from all the pores of the skin, the extremities grew cold, she was delirious, and breathed laboriously, and at great intervals. Soon after spasms took place in the head, and she expired.

C A S E XII.

A man who, after having heated himself, drank freely at supper, was taken in the night with vomiting, high fever, pain in the right side, some degree of inflammation, which threatened the internal parts, and great restlessness : the urine was, from the beginning, thick, and red, without depositing : the tongue very dry, though he was not thirsty. He had, on the fourth day, an acute fever, and pains all over. The fifth, he made a great deal of smooth, oily, water ; and continued very feverish. The 8th, towards the evening, he grew very delirious, and got no sleep at night. The seventh, every thing wore a gloomy aspect, the urine in the same state ; he spoke a number of incoherent words, and had no command of himself : he had many liquid, acrimonious stools, in which were perceived some *lumbrici* ; the night was a bad one. On the morning, after some

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rigor,

rigor, followed a high fever, and a hot sweat, which seemed to leave him free from fever, though he got but little rest; after sleeping a little, he grew cold, breathed quickly, and rambled a good deal at night: he soon after brought up a small quantity of black bilious matters. On the ninth he was cold, delirious, and sleepless. The 10th, he felt a pain in his legs, all the symptoms were more intense, he continued delirious, and died on the 11th.

C A S E XIII.

A woman, who lived on the shore, gone three months with child, was seized with a very great fever and pain in the loins. The third day she complained of her head, neck, and right hand: she soon lost her voice, and the use of her right hand, after being a little convulsed, not unlike those who have a slight stroke of palsy: she was quite delirious, passed a restless, laborious night; and had a few stools, merely bilious.

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lions. The fourth, her voice was extinct, pains and convulsions continued in the same parts, the præcordia swelled and grew painful, she got no sleep, was quite delirious; the bowels were disordered, the urine thin and not of a good colour. A violent fever happened on the fifth, with pain in the præcordia, high delirium, and bilious dejections: a sweat, which broke out at night, put a stop to the fever. On the sixth she came to herself, all the symptoms abated; but the left side of the neck remained painful: she was thirsty, voided thin urine, and got no rest. The seventh, a shivering fit came on, she slept a little, was rather rambling; the pains in the neck and left arm continued, the rest of the symptoms abated, and she recovered entirely her senses. In the course of the three following days the fever subsided, she seemed free from it, but it returned on the 11th, and after a new fit of rigor, was very violent: however, towards the 14th, she threw

threw up, at different times, yellow, bilious matters; and afterwards had a critical sweat which terminated her complaint.

C A S E XIV.

Melidia, who lived near the temple of *Juno*, began to complain of a violent pain in the head, neck, and breast; and soon after, had an acute fever; the menstrual discharge appeared in small quantity, and the pains did not remit. The sixth day she fell into a profound sleep, was taken with sickness, heat, horror, redness of cheeks, and delirium. On the seventh, after a profuse sweat, the fever intermitted, the pains continued; she was again feverish, and got but little sleep. During all the time of her illness, the urine was of a good colour, though thin. The stools liquid, bilious, some griping, black, and offensive. The urine had a smooth, white sediment; a sweat broke out, and the disease ended critically on the eleventh.

REMARKS

REMARKS *on the* EPIDEMICS.

OUT of the seven books of Epidemics, contained in the collection of our author's works, I have presented the reader with a translation of the first, rather than with extracts of them all, because this, and the third, being the only ones reckoned genuine, and both being extremely similar, it was the best method, I thought, of enabling him to judge of Hippocrates's descriptive manner.

None of his writings are so much celebrated as these; not only by his commentators, the nature of whose office prevents our wondering at any thing they say, but also by a number of excellent authors, from whose abilities, the public had a right to expect a candid account. To stand almost alone against so many, and such, adversaries, might less argue courage, than unpar-

unpardonable rashness; therefore let the reader, apprised of the danger, deliberate about avoiding or facing it. Let him ask himself, whether between the states of the air which he has seen so minutely described, and the various succeeding disorders, there is such a connection *, as may, by remaining in his memory, enable him in future to give a guess at the character of impending diseases? Whether, by keeping in his mind the history of the cases annexed, in which no mention is made of the pulse, (for Hippocrates never speaks of this sign) nor of any sort of remedies, except the introduction of pessaries, and suppositories, he can hope to whet his discernment in diagnosticks, or improve his skill in the method of cure? If he answers these two questions in the affirma-

* For an attempt to establish a connection of this kind, see Dr. Rutton's Chronolog. Histor. of the Weather, &c. a most elaborate, and well-meant performance.

tive, he may then justly lament that a *meteorological register* has not been daily kept in every town, since the creation of the world, and that his library does not contain a collection of all the cases that, during this interval, have been treated by practitioners of every country. But if he is of a different opinion, he may, perhaps, by dwelling on this subject, make the following reflections : “ One may, no doubt, give the name of *Epidemic* to all the diseases which human nature is heir to, since, according to its etymology, it signifies nothing else : but as we must have a word to distinguish those which, either from a common source of contagion, or a peculiar state of the air, spread themselves extensively without any material difference in the symptoms ; *Epidemics*, sometimes used in that sense, ought, for the sake of clearness and regularity, to be confined to that class, and not be applied, as it is even by our great Sydenham, to many disorders
apparent-

apparently independent of these two general causes. The history of diseases, falling under this limited denomination, drawn from the collected records of several practitioners, (as seems to be the plan of the College for the late *Influenza*) with a general mention of the sensible qualities of the air *, and a particular account of the remedies employed with good and bad success; without filling up a greater space than the understanding can easily comprehend, would be a valuable legacy to our sons, and a monument of the attention of their fathers to the public good. But to minute down every variation of weather-

* Should this expression be thought inadequate to the supposed importance of a minute enquiry into the particularities of so powerful a cause, the opinion of the learned and judicious *Sir George Baker*, (*De Dysenter.*) may serve, in point of authority, to justify it: and the impossibility of deriving any assistance towards the cure, from a more particular observation of the temperature, will, it is presumed, make it appear sufficient.

glasses, to keep a daily list of every patient's distemper, and communicate all this under the name of *Epidemics*, is not likely to prove of greater advantage to physic, than the annual publication of the bills of mortality. Volumes built on such a plan, must soon oppress the happiest memory, and would even mislead the best judgment, if ever a man of judgment should attempt to take them for his guide in practice. An historian who, for example, describing the continued fever of a certain number of years, observes, that in some it was more inflammatory than in others, and that in different persons, though in the same year, different symptoms obliged him to vary his method of cure; adds nothing to the information we have received from writers on pathology. From these we have learned the general character of this fever, with its usual tribe of symptoms during its several stages; and as to its various appearances and anomalies, their repeated cautions,

and

and our own observations, have soon taught us to compare the best description of a disease, to a good map of a country. This points out the most striking objects, and informs the traveller of the great roads with which it is pierced; but cannot represent the varieties of grounds, nor a number of paths, known only to its inhabitants; in the other, the great distinguishing features are delineated; but the many alterations they may receive from the various combinations of age, sex, constitution, habits, situation in life, and other circumstances, are beyond the power of the finest pencil. Therefore, thinking with Sydenham, that epidemic diseases, considered in the light in which he himself has written upon them, is an inexhaustible subject, I will rather in practice form my judgment of a case, from an attentive consideration of every circumstance, than from a conjectural similarity to any recorded instance: and being, like him, persuaded, that

“ years, perfectly agreeing as to the mani-
 “ fest temperature of the air, have never-
 “ theless produced different tribes of
 “ diseases, and *vice versa*,” I will not
 load my memory with lumber of this
 kind, but learn only from Hippocrates’s
 Epidemics, to observe, as he did, every
 symptom with the greatest attention, and
 in whatever I communicate to the public,
 to relate with the same candour, my want
 of success.”

C H A P. XI.

APHORISMS

LIFE is short, the Art is long, opportunity fleeting, experience uncertain, judgment difficult. * It is not enough to do what the case requires; the patient, his friends, and the world, must besides be paid attention to *

Aph. 1. Sect. 1.

Time implies opportunity: opportunity is a short part of time: the art of healing avails itself of both.

Præcep. p. 271

* I am aware that the translation of the last part of this Aphorism may be thought too free; but I could not make it more literal, without rendering it obscure like the text.

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A natu-

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Neither is it sufficient that the Physician do his office, unless the Patient & his attendants do their duty.

S^r Conrad Sprengell's Translation

A natural countenance is a favourable sign, though the illness be dangerous ; as a bad one is an unfavourable symptom, though the complaint may appear trifling.

De Morb. Vulg. p. 262.

Nature cures diseases.

De Morb. Vulg. p. 278.

A bold and fierce answer, from a person naturally gentle, is a bad sign.

Prædict. p. 56.

It is a subject of enquiry, whether a profound sleep ought to be considered as a bad symptom.

Prædict. p. 52.

All expectorated matters which afford no relief are bad, especially if of a black colour. The best are those which abate the disease.

Præd. p. 8.

White, equal, and smooth pus, without bad smell, is the best.

Prænot. p. 6.

In

In disorders of the lungs, it is a sign of recovery when abscesses take place near the ears, or when a deposition of matter happens to the lower parts, and occasion a fistula, *Prænot. p. 10.*

Corpulent persons die sooner than thin ones. *Aph. 44. Sect. 11.*

The head-ach is removed by an effusion of *pus* from the nostrils, or an expectoration of thick inoffensive matter; also by the breaking out of ulcers; sometimes by sleep and a looseness of the bowels.

Coac. Præn. p. 130.

Consumptive persons, whose spittle being thrown on fire exhales an offensive vapour, and whose hair falls, do not recover.

Coac. Præn. p. 176.

When the matter, which consumptive persons expectorate, sinks in sea-water, it is a sign of speedy dissolution: the sea-water must be in a copper vessel.

Coac. Præn. p. 176.

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From

From the age of eighteen to that of thirty-five, consumptions chiefly happen.

Coac. Præn. p. 176.

Frequent extinctions of voice, with a propensity to sleep, threaten a consumption.

Coac. Præn. p. 145.

Drawing at once all the *pus* contained in the chest, or the water of the abdomen, by the operation of burning or cutting, proves fatal.

Aphor. 27. Sect. 6.

Dropsies, arising after acute disorders, are dangerous, for they do not stop the fever, but cause violent pains, and prove fatal.

Præn. p. 6.

Dropsies returning after having been cured, leave no room for hopes.

Coac. Præn. p. 179.

Ulcers supervening in dropfical complaints, are difficult to cure.

Aphor. 8. Sect. 6.

Epilepsy

Epilepsy happening after dropfical complaints, is fatal. *Coac. Præn. 179.*

A cough supervening in a dropfy, is a bad sign. *Aphor. 35. Sect. 6.*

One must observe, that from great effusions of blood, many persons have become dropfical.

De Morb. Vulg. p. 273.

Epilepsies are often cured in young people by time, change of air, and of diet.

Aphor. 45. Sect. 2.

Insanity is cured by hemorrhages.

Aphor. 21. Sect. 6.

Diseases of the kidneys and bladder, are seldom cured in old people.

Aphor. 6. Sect. 6.

In the jaundice, it is a bad sign when the liver grows hard.

Aphor. 42. Sect. 6.

A sudden pain of the kidneys, with suppression of urine, indicates either an

evacuation of thick water, or of some stones. *Coac. Præn. 206.*

A gnawing of the teeth in fevers, happening to those in whom it was not habitual from infancy, portends delirium and death. *Præn. p. 4.*

When the testicles, and other parts of generation, are drawn up, it is a sign of pain and danger. *Præn. p. 6.*

The best urine is that in which, during the whole course of the disease, till a crisis takes place, there is a light white sediment : it denotes a short duration of the complaint, and absence of danger.

Præn. p. 7.

Small viscid white stools, or smooth and of a green cast, are unfavourable. Black, livid, or -green and greasy ones, are still more certainly fatal.

Præn. p. 7.

A torpor succeeding to rigor, is a sign of delirium.

Præd. p. 49.

A pulsation in the præcordia, denotes agitation and delirium,

Præn. p. 5.

Copious sweats in acute fevers, are a bad sign.

Præd. p. 51.

Frequent expectorations in phrensies, with a sensation of cold, denote that a vomiting of black matter will soon happen,

Præd. p. 49.

A pain in the throat, without swelling, but attended with anxiety, and suffocation, is a sign of imminent death.

Præd. p. 53.

Black alvine dejections, if attended with sleep, produce swellings near the ears.

Præd. p. 63.

Fevers which come near the tertian type, accompanied with restlessness, are of a malignant nature.

Coac. Præn. p. 105.

Swellings

Swellings of the hands and feet, attended with redness, threaten dissolution,

Coac. Præn. p. 109.

An evacuation of black bile upwards and downwards at the beginning of fevers, is mortal.

Coac. Præn. p. 110.

Ramblings during sleep, threaten convulsions.

Coac. Præn. p. 113.

In fevers, a pain and pulsation of the vein in the neck, shew that a dysentery will follow.

Coac. Præn. p. 119.

Great inspirations, with a high fever and tension of the præcordia, indicate in bilious habits, abscesses near the ears.

Coac. Præn. p. 119.

An ardent fever is stopped by a fit of rigor.

Coac. Præn. p. 120.

An exact tertian fever ends in the fifth, seventh, or ninth paroxysm.

Coac. Præn. p. 124.

An

An involuntary emission of water, with a contraction of the parts of generation, exclude all hopes of a recovery.

Coac. Præn. p. 206.

The time of the year, a pain in the side, or an abundance of bile, render bleeding improper in a spitting of blood.

De Morb. Vulg. p. 269.

Spittings of a round shape, as in the case of *Plenus*, portend a delirium.

De Morb. Vulg. p. 269.

Bilious dejections are cured by a supervening deafness, and deafness ceases also when bilious dejections take place.

Aph. 28. Sect. 4.

Venesection makes a pregnant woman miscarry, especially if she is near her time.

Aph. 31. Sect. 5.

If a woman, neither lately brought to bed, nor pregnant, has milk, it is a sign that her menses are suppressed.

Aph. 39. Sect. 3.

If

If women uncommonly corpulent do not breed, it is a sign that the omentum covers the mouth of the uterus: the only method to render them fruitful, is to make them thinner. *Aphor. 45. Sect. 5.*

A woman has more colour in the face when she bears a male child, than if it is a female. *Aph. 42. Sect. 5.*

Eunuchs are not subject to the gout, and their hair does not grow white.

Aph. 28. Sect. 6.

Women are not subject to the gout^{*} as long as they have their menses.

Aph. 29. Sect. 6.

Persons whose brains are sphacelated*, if they out-live the third day recover.

* See page 147, note.

* Unless her monthly course fail her.

REMARKS

REMARKS *on the* APHORISMS.

THE Aphorisms of Hippocrates are not, as *Sir Richard Blackmore* would have it, *a book of Jest* *. Nor ought they to be called, as in the language of some authors, *a Collection of Oracles*; unless, indeed, this word be taken, not in the vulgar acceptation of unalterable certainty, but in a sense relative to frequent ambiguity in the expression, and more frequent doubtfulness in the event. Generally speaking, they shew, I think, a great acquaintance with diseases, and a wonderful habit of observation: but, at the same time, an unphilosophical hastiness to convert particular instances into fixed laws of nature; a hastiness which, indeed, appears through all the works of our author. — Some are so remarkably just, that they seem

* Dr. Johnson's *Lives of the Poets*.

to have been the result of very long experience : others are as evidently false, and cannot have been transmitted to us by the same pen. Many are uncertain, some absurd*, not a few unintelligible. The foregoing specimens have been selected from the different chapters in which, though under different names, the same sententious mode of enunciation is adopted ; and in this selection, attention has been paid to the information which the reader may derive from a perusal of them. I have, by drawing a line, divided them into two parts, on account of a sensible difference between their degrees of justness ; and

* Si nosse velis num mulier conceperit, ei dormituræ aquam mulsam propinato, et si ventris tormina eam corripuerint, concepit : sin minus, non concepit.

Aph. 4. Sect. 5.

Quibusdam, cum venerem exercent, venter inflatur, quod *Damnagoræ* accidit : quibusdam vero tum crepitus fit, ut *Arcefilao*.

De Morb. Vulg. p. 268.

have, for that reason, made the last shorter than the first, though considerably longer in Hippocrates. It easily will occur, that the nature of our Art, and the uncertainty of our judgments, are equally repugnant to this positiveness of expression : and that, if such a manner of conveying instruction is not to be reckoned (though *Baglivi* thinks it ought) among the causes of the slow progress of medicine, it should, at least, be but seldom imitated, and even then tempered, like other general rules, with a possibility of exceptions.

CONCLUSION.

IT has been advanced, at the beginning of this book, that the writings ascribed to Hippocrates, have, by an uncommon expansion, swelled into a number of weighty volumes; or, in other words, been the pattern which the greatest part of subsequent authors, for about twenty centuries, have either copied or imitated. The substance of his doctrines and practice which I have delivered, will, therefore, enable the reader to conjecture what he is to expect, if he should plunge into the turbid sea of ancient medical learning. But whether he takes or rejects my advice, he will, I trust, ascribe it to the motive
from

from which it is given, viz. the desire of contributing my mite to the advancement of our profession. I will not wish him to believe that the *Cacoethes* had no hand in it, because he would not pay much attention to my request: but only beg he will take notice, that if the *fit* was a strong one, there is some merit in having thus limited its duration, considering the opportunity. From this very circumstance, however, I may be called to account; and accused of having mutilated the picture I intended to reduce: I will therefore anticipate the charge, and acknowledge a few trifling faults, in hope of indulgence for more essential defects. I have entirely suppressed his system of generation, and four or five little tracts, concerning the nature of children, dentition, anatomy, &c. for the same reasons I have given in mentioning my neglect of his diseases of women*: and I have, besides, contracted as

* See page 191.

much as possible, his out-of-the-way theories, from regard to himself, to the reader, and to time, which ought not to be consciously wasted. Of all the rest I have given some extracts, more or less considerable, according to my notions of their intrinsic value, or of consistency with my plan, the nature of which, will always make me receive in good part the remarks of any gentleman on this head. As a supplement to this short confession, I will observe, that in asserting a sameness of matter constitutes the substance of almost all ancient medical writings, I would not be so literally understood, as to make any body conclude I mean to deny them what share of merit *Dr. Freind*, in his *History of Physic*, has given them credit for; no doubt, they contain some useful observations, and the traces of a few steps towards improvement: but I maintain they are concealed under such a heap of repetitions, that the pleasure of discovering them must have

have appeared, even to an historian; a moderate compensation for his trouble. I therefore presume to differ from many good and able men, who, in speaking of the ancients to young people, are apt to make a strange application of the precept, *vos exemplaria Græca, &c.* The propriety of this injunction to Poets, is, perhaps, a reason of its impropriety to Physicians; since among the liberal arts there are none so essentially different as Poetry, in some respects, is from Physic.—In early times Poetry reigned over large dominions, and wealthy subjects: proud of her riches, she often dazzled the world with her magnificence; but notwithstanding her endeavours to appear still in the same splendour, she is often heard to lament the loss of her wasted treasures.—Medicine, the child of Time, cannot boast of such beginnings: though worshipped, almost at her birth, for a certain benignity which appeared in her looks, she long remained a feeble in-

fant ; but having at last emerged from that state, should no longer think too much of her cradle. This original difference between the two arts, preserves still some influence in our days : the first is more successfully cultivated during the vigour of youth ; the last appears to greater advantage towards the autumn, and even the winter of life : no wonder, then, if imagination flies with rapture to the native scenes of her enchantments, and if science leaves them in quest of modern discoveries.

It is not partiality to our own times to say, that Medicine has been much improved in this century. The nature of several diseases has been more particularly explored ; the manner of prescribing considerably simplified ; from that simplicity, the virtues of remedies have been better ascertained ; above all, our Art has availed itself of the experiments and enquiries, made into the many branches of Natural Philosophy with which it is connected.

But,

But, numerous as these improvements are, the difficulty of making oneself acquainted with their particulars, lies only in the method that ought to be pursued, and has no other cause than the officious readiness of a thousand writers, to instruct us upon every subject. In plain language, our knowledge is small; our books are innumerable. It is a drop of essential oil diffused in too much water, which we must try to concentrate, if we wish to feel its power. Therefore the *art of reading* is become a necessary part of a medical education*; but this art is not much benefited by the trouble which the illustrious *Haller*, and others, have taken in filling up a volume with the titles of those which a student should peruse. Instead of giving to *Physic* so formidable an aspect, one might, I think, without lessening its dig-

* *Lectio librorum tumultuaria, inconsideratâ et inexplabili quâdam aviditate facta, mentem hebetat. Baglivi, p. 21.*

nity, point out an easier access, by some reflections of the following sort:—The knowledge of *books*, and the knowledge of a *profession*, are by no means synonymous terms. The first constitutes *learning*; the second *abilities*. I will not say that abilities may be acquired without the assistance of learning, because, whether it be possible or not, the trial is not adviseable: but I will venture to affirm, all the learning in the world cannot alone produce abilities; because, let the picture be ever so good, it is always essentially different from the original. Books are therefore to be valued so far, as they assist us in the attainment of professional knowledge. Upon which it is not digressing from our subject to observe, that in the three learned professions, they answer this end in unequal degrees. Their use to the Divine is sufficiently known: to the Lawyer it is an indispensable task to turn over a great number, on account of the definite weight affixed to recorded authorities;

thorities: a circumstance which renders his quotations as frequent as they are necessary. But the code of invariable medical laws is not a bulky volume; and as for the others, though perhaps we can boast of as many great men among our legislators as any other art or science; such is our scrupulosity, if I may use the expression, that to their wisest *maxims*, we only give the name of *opinions*: a particularity which ought not so much to be construed into a diffidence of their judgment, as into a sense of the difficulty of resolving upon paper the various intricacies of practice*. Hence the method of studying our profession at the beds of patients, has an evident advantage over books †: and hence arises a sort

* The diseases to which the human body is obnoxious, are so various, and frequently so complicated with each other, that it requires the clearest judgment to distinguish them with accuracy, and the nicest skill to treat them with propriety. *Dr. Percival*, vol. 1. p. 47.

† Notum esto Juvenibus se doctiorem librum non inventuros quam ægrum ipsum. *Baglivi*, p. 26.

of similarity between Physic and some other arts, the advancement of which is not owing to written instructions, but to the pointed observations of masters. Thus painters, statuaries, and musicians, learn their enchanting arts, without the help of libraries; and thus illiterate mechanics astonish the luxurious with their refinements on the conveniencies of life.

If, from this manner of reasoning, it should be said that I am pleading the cause of Empiricism, I will answer, that it is not my intention to do so; and that I only mean to comment the text of Hippocrates, *sect. iii. p. 78.* Το γδ̄ εδος τασι χειρσι καλιστα διδασκαλειον, *Practice is the best teacher.* But in order to remove more effectually all suspicions of this kind, and at the same time to convey to the reader my notions (such as they are) of the plan upon which I conceive a medical education ought to be conducted, I will make use of a comparison, which, from a sort of identity with

with the subject it is meant to illustrate, hardly deserves to be called a *comparison*.—

When it is the wish of parents to qualify their son for a public employment, in which station success is known to depend upon a general knowledge of mankind, and the art of seeing deep into characters, they do not indistinctly refer him to the various pictures of *man*, drawn by numberless historians: thinking, with great reason, that under so many pencils, original likeness is but faintly expressed: much less do they recommend to his attention, the commentaries of subsequent politicians: but selecting for the most interesting periods, a few cotemporary writers, and injoining an increase of attention, proportional with their proximity to his own times; they send him, thus provided with a fund of general knowledge, to the great school of the world for more particular and better information. To that same school also, ought the Physician to be sent early,
not

not as an actor, his part requires to be studied a long while, but as an attentive observer. In his closet, with a judicious choice of modern books, he may learn the *Science* of Medicine; or by studying the ancients, he may acquire *Erudition*; but in hospitals alone he can learn the *Art* of healing *. Concerning the science, Physicians will probably one day be unanimous; concerning the Art, such an unanimity is no more to be expected, than uniformity in the public opinion respecting the merits of practitioners, and the justness of their reputation.

The reputation of Hippocrates might be thought an exception to this constant diversity of sentiments: but even on his laurels, Envy tried to blow her poisonous

* Quo mihi innumerabiles libros et bibliothecas quorum dominus vix totâ vitâ suâ indices perlegit? *Senec.*—Homines quærent veritatem in microcosmis suis non in mundo majori. *Heracl.*

breath;

breath *; a circumstance hardly worth mentioning, did not such an attempt, on the father of Physic, contain a lesson of patience for his posterity. However, the eulogic excesses, into which filial piety has led a multitude of subsequent writers, are to him, if not to offended truth, a sufficient compensation for such a calumny. The fable of the honours conferred upon him by the Athenians, in gratitude for his assistance in a plague, which did not happen in his time: that of the magnificent offers made him by a king of *Persia*, as an inducement to settle in his dominions, with the barbarian-like answer he is made to give in that fable; also his pretended correspondence with many great personages; and a number of other stories of the same stamp, are so generally known, that

* He was accused of having set fire to the Cnidian Library: and of having copied some medical writings in the temple of Esculapius. *Plin. lib. 29. cap. 1.* as quoted by *Le Clerc.*

I will

I will not intrude a repetition of them upon the reader : nor is there occasion to remind him of the flattering names, by which antiquity was pleased to express her veneration ; but presuming he may not be sorry to know the manner in which a celebrated modern writer expresses himself on this subject, I will translate, in this place, a few of his philosophical *sentences*.

“ Hippocrates is the polar star of Medicine, which one never can lose sight of, without danger of losing the way : he has represented things such as they are ; he is always *concise* and *clear* ; his descriptions are faithful images of diseases.”

“ His mind, as solid as elevated, *disdained all vain speculations*.”

“ He omits no circumstance, and *only warrants those which he has been a witness to*.”

“ The generous *disinterestedness* with which he has communicated to mankind his knowledge and his writings, must make him

him appear, *if viewed with an impartial eye*, superior to the human species. His merit leaves no room to imagine *he can have rivals*; rival himself of Apollo, &c."

"The united labours of all the Physicians, who have written since the infancy of Physic, would hardly inform us of as many phenomena, and symptoms of diseases, as this single author.—Such is the true, the admirable, I could almost say, the divine, Hippocrates."

I believe it will be granted, from these few specimens, that if the ancients surpassed us in good works, we are not behind them in good words. The author of this panegyric will naturally be supposed to be a physician, thoroughly conversant with the state of Physic in ancient and modern times; what else indeed could be supposed? However, the author of this panegyric is not a physician, at least a professed one; nor is it likely, considering the various subjects he has given his attention

tion to, that Physic has engrossed much of his time : it is *Mr. Diderot*, collector of the materials with which *L'Encyclopedie* has been erected *. The name this gentleman has acquired in the literary world, and the rank, which the compilation he has arranged, holds in it, have induced me to pay to his opinions, by mentioning them, an attention to which they are not entitled from any other consideration. Were Hippocrates to wake from his long sleep, he would be the first to tell *Mr. Diderot* ; *You never read my writings, therefore should have said nothing about them : now I am* CONCISE AND CLEAR.

In our endeavours to form a right judgment of the merits of Hippocrates as a

* See article *Medecine* ; the author of which, who is not a physician, judiciously takes *Mr. Diderot* for his guide. By copying his preface to the translation of Dr. James's Dictionary of Physic, (undoubtedly a fine method of writing such an article!) he has given a true idea of the manner in which a considerable part of that collection is formed.

promoter

promoter of the Art, we should consider, that, from the complacency with which he mentions his doctrine on *Diet*, and the care he repeatedly takes to inform us he is the inventor of it; together with some passages on the luxation of the humerus, and the diagnostic between the stone and gravel*, in which he thinks he differed with advantage from his cotemporaries, there is reason to infer, that had he made other improvements, he would not have passed them in silence. We may, therefore, venture to believe, that he has not done much towards the investigation of diseases, or the introduction of essential remedies, since he has been silent on those heads: and hence it will appear very probable, that our ignorance of the state of Physic before his time, and the discovery that his writings were the fountain of the Arabian doctrines, are the two grand causes of his extraordinary reputation

* See pag. 176—131—46.

among

among us. Among his cotemporaries, he may have enjoyed the greatest share of popular favour as a skilful practitioner; but who does not know the uncertainty of the public's judgment, respecting medical abilities? Who does not know the difficulty of appreciating the merit of a physician? "They that employ him know not his excellence; they that reject him know not his deficiency *." The transient flash of popular applause, reflects but a deceitful light on inquiries of this kind. Since he has written, his writings ought to be our only guide; and whoever has studied them impartially, will, I believe, be of opinion; that, through a great deal of uninformative, unnecessary matter, appear evident marks of extensive knowledge, strong understanding, genius for observation, an enlarged manner of thinking, and professional candour. This encomium, passed upon a modern, might seem exaggerated:

* Dr. Johnson's life of Akenfide.

applied to Hippocrates, may be thought injuriously moderate. But it is not my fault, if his panegyrist, in the warmth of their zeal, have overlooked that nature, considered as an *artist*, generally bestows on her works, a more equal degree of attention than is commonly supposed; or if looked upon as a *mother*, though not free from partiality, does not, however, lavish favours on one of her children, to the prejudice of all the rest.

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